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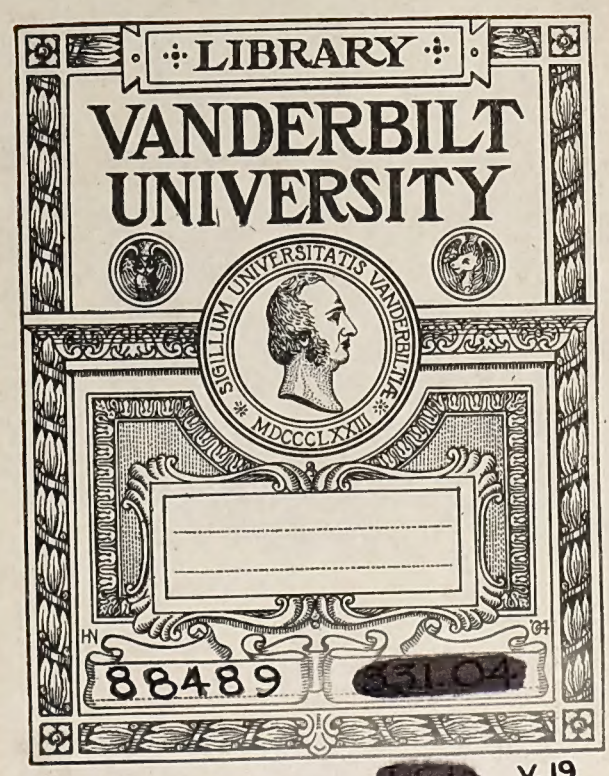

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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

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Migration Problems and the Havana Conference of 1928

by

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The Monthly Record of Migration, *in the number for June-July 1928, has already published a report of the second International Conference on Emigration and Immigration, which was held at Havana from 31 March to 17 April 1928. It is therefore not the intention of Professor Varlez, who attended the Conference in an advisory capacity, to analyse here in detail the proceedings of each of the committees and the contents of the various resolutions. The purpose of the author, who has been given this opportunity of expressing his personal opinions, is rather to give some idea of the general atmosphere, to determine the special conditions which influenced the discussions, to show the difficulties encountered and the value of the results achieved ; in short, to extract as it were the philosophy of the meeting. It is from this angle that he stresses the new tendencies which he sees at work for the solution of migration problems, on the national or the international plane, and sets out the facts of this great social and political question as they appear to-day. This survey leads up to the general idea, which in the author's opinion was accepted by most of the delegates at Havana, that the best method of solving such a complex problem is to entrust its solution to the existing international institutions.*

THE Second International Conference on Emigration and Immigration was held at Havana from 31 March to 17 April 1928. It has been spoken of with some contempt in certain quarters, where the meeting is said to have led to nothing. It must be admitted that when the delegates left Cuba on 17 April 1928, there was a certain atmosphere of melancholy, and perhaps even of scepticism, over the results of those three weeks of activity devoted to migration questions. Comparisons with the Conference held at Rome four years earlier were not all to the advantage of Havana.

A more attentive examination of the discussions, however, will show that this pessimistic note is not justified, and that the Havana Conference has done much to throw light on the questions that it had to elucidate, both by what it did and by what it was unable to do, both by the resolutions it adopted and by those it could not or would not adopt. In this respect it will prove the starting point for a new policy and an important epoch in the history of migration.

Composition of the Conference

To begin with, in its actual composition the Conference was in marked contrast with the one held four years earlier at the Capitol. On the former occasion accredited representatives of the Governments of all the world except Russia, Turkey, and some countries at a low stage of development, where migration is of no importance, met in larger numbers than ever before. At Havana there were many abstentions, including those of countries of importance from the migration standpoint : Brazil, Canada, the Irish Free State, India, all the Mussulman countries, and several Balkan and Baltic countries. Others, represented by observers, emphasised their intention that their delegations should remain in the background ; Great Britain and several of her Dominions, Germany and the United States, although present, no longer took an active part in the discussions and voting. Many other countries were content to accredit to the Conference their Ministers at Havana or other American capitals. Italy herself, the enthusiastic protagonist of the Rome Conference, joined this last group. Only fourteen countries were left, therefore, which sent experts to support the diplomats representing them at Havana, and were truly armed for the discussion.

All this denoted a certain indifference, or rather a desire on the part of many Governments not to tie their hands on an important question at a meeting which, as the Japanese representative opportunely recalled, was purely technical. Considering the widening scope and political development of migration problems, and the fear displayed by many Governments of having solutions imposed on them that the country would not accept, these abstentions and reservations are perfectly comprehensible.

The Decisions of the Conference

This does not mean that the discussions at Havana were without interest. In spite of everything, there were many delegations, and many experts of high standing. All the Spanish-American countries were there, so were Japan and China, as well as the large majority of continental European countries. The debates were animated, and the session was characterised by frankness and intimacy; while the bold decision, taken at the request of the Argentine Delegate, to give the widest publicity to the discussions, makes it possible to speak openly of the meeting.

Many decisions were taken: some fifty technical resolutions relating to all the forms of protection and welfare of emigrants were added to the hundred statements of opinion and the fifty resolutions of the Rome Conference. Together with these they form an imposing body of proposals which commend themselves to the Governments as a whole in the interests of migrants.

These resolutions have already been analysed on various occasions. Reference may be made in particular to the detailed survey in the *Monthly Record of Migration* published by the International Labour Office.[1] They were also reproduced in full, though in slightly differing terms, in the *Diario Oficial* and the *Acta Final*, and anyone interested can easily study both the texts and the discussions, for all the proceedings at Havana have been published and distributed. In spite of the great interest of these decisions, and of the valuable information that careful examination of the debates gives on the real tendencies and desires of the Governments, lack of space makes it impossible here to examine them one by one. All that can be done is to put forward certain general observations on points within the scope of the discussions: these points were in general not voted on, but they were prominent in everyone's mind, even when they were not expressed in so many words.

The Great Problems

Since the Rome Conference migration problems have changed considerably, and many remarks, which at Rome were made as expressions of individual opinion, now impressed all hearers by

[1] June-July 1928.

the wideness of their application, and expression was given to them in several cautious and carefully weighed resolutions. Three points may be distinguished, around which the interests of the participants appear to have centred.

(1) In the first place, national legislative measures. Promulgated by hundreds in the various countries of emigration and immigration, they have not done migration movements the services expected of them. Instead of improving the flow of migrants, they have very often reduced it and created ever-increasing incompatibilities between countries of emigration and of immigration.

In view of these unexpected results, the inevitable conclusion was that if a solution for migration problems, which are international phenomena, is to be found by way of regulation, it must lie in treaties rather than in national legislation, which is not adapted to the international character of the phenomena. International conventions that can be enforced are needed, not merely resolutions of conferences. This point must be stressed, for actual results are wanted now, and no longer mere discussion.

(2) The essential questions for migrants are not those of technique and administration, statistics and protection, transport and inspection. Above all these details of regulation, fundamental problems of high international policy are becoming more and more evident. The recognition of the right to come and go ; the freedom to emigrate, to immigrate, and to settle abroad ; genuine equality of treatment between nationals and foreigners, between races and between men ; the necessities of a policy of rational distribution of population and development of world resources ; the dangers of a too unequal distribution of population on the coasts of the Atlantic and above all of the Pacific : these are the essential questions that it is felt must be treated, even, and especially, when Governments hesitate and evade discussion.

(3) Lastly, the failure of national legislation having disclosed the international character of these problems, the question is what authority is competent to solve them. Can a solution be hoped for from the occasional meetings of technical experts, such as those at Rome and Havana, the success or failure of which depends on the goodwill or hostility of a given Government, and often on the competence o. the power of an individual ? It seems clear that for the examination of problems of this kind great international conferences are needed, with sessions held at regular intervals, and preceded by careful preparatory work on the part

of the competent authorities; conferences which in successive sessions, like those of economic, financial, or labour conferences, and with the effective participation of the Governments, would examine all the aspects of this ever-growing problem. Now this assiduous attention, these preliminary enquiries and necessary negotiations, this universal interest, can be made a reality only by the great permanent organisations of Geneva. This was felt and said everywhere at Havana, even when something else was being voted on.

We must examine each of these points in rather more detail.

The Distinction between Domestic and International Questions

To what extent are these questions domestic; to what extent international? In sending their Delegation to Havana the United States made it quite clear that they did so with the reservation that questions of immigration were to be considered as domestic questions; and the lack of interest shown by the members of the British Empire in the discussions seemed largely founded on considerations of the same nature. Since the Rome Conference, Italy, which had set the international movement going, had abolished its General Emigration Department and declared that the word "emigrant", like the policy of protection, had become obsolete, that in future there would be no such thing as emigrants, but only Italian citizens abroad, subject to the instructions of diplomatic and consular agents. In order to make its position in this regard perfectly clear, it had sent to the Havana Conference three distinguished diplomats accredited to America, but no official from Rome.

In another direction, the League of Nations, the International Labour Office, the International Institute of Agriculture, and the International Conference of Private Organisations for the Protection of Migrants had been invited and were represented; they laid before the delegates of the Governments a series of international achievements that could not fail to attract attention. The result was that when terminating its work the Conference, while noting the reservations of the United States, unanimously adopted a resolution inviting the international institutions "energetically to continue the work undertaken by them relating to migration which had hitherto been done so effectively"; and by a happy eclecticism the resolutions of the Havana Conference, like

those of Rome, are addressed to Governments and to international bodies in turn.

All this goes to show that much confusion still reigns, which must be dissipated, or at least attenuated, if any solid work is to be done. This unsettled feeling is largely due to the fact that the problems of regulating migration are still recent; they have not reached the necessary degree of maturity, and hitherto migration policy has been the subject of declarations rather than of reasoning, of resolutions rather than of study.

Yet the problem seems simple. Is it a case of domestic questions or of an international problem? In reality, both at once, for the terms, far from being mutually exclusive, are complementary and explain each other.

It is essentially a domestic matter for a country of emigration to know what order it shall maintain within its frontiers; to say who may leave the country and in what conditions, in what number, from which occupations and which districts, where the emigrant may go and how; to decide whether a passport is needed and under what conditions it shall be granted; to state what information and protection will be given, what contracts the emigrant may accept or refuse. So long as he remains within the national frontiers, the prospective emigrant must in all these matters follow the instructions of his Government, and his Government alone. To decide how far legislation must go if it is to be useful and effective is the task of the national authorities and the national legislature. They will determine, freely and alone, what limits to apply to the right of their citizens to emigrate and to return home.

Again, it is certainly a national and domestic matter for a country of immigration to say what classes of immigrants may enter or leave the country; what conditions of moral and physical health and intellectual and economic resources they must satisfy; to decide whether immigration shall be authorised, in what number, from which countries, occupations, and races; what supervision shall be exercised over immigrants; how the entry, sojourn, work, journeyings, and departure of immigrants shall be allowed; to determine who shall be rejected, registered, or expelled, when and how; what shall be the duties of the newcomer towards his chosen country; whether assimilation or naturalisation shall be allowed, encouraged, or refused; to fix the functions reserved, allowed, or forbidden to foreign officials. Here again it is a matter for national discussion within the country whether it will be expedient to adopt a given policy, and what are its advantages and dangers; and the

discussion will remain a domestic question. If the decision taken affects or offends another country to such a point that its national interests and dignity compel it to defend rights that it considers essential, this again will be a domestic question to be settled between the two countries concerned, in which other countries will intervene only as conciliators and friends anxious to prevent grave conflicts that may disturb the peace of the world.[1]

On the other hand, any decision or regulation is certainly international which must be executed beyond the frontiers limiting the action of national and domestic legislation, or which goes beyond the duties of a citizen to his country. Between the frontiers of the country of emigration and of the country of immigration, there are foreign lands to be traversed, there are the high seas, there are foreign ships, which have to apply the legislation of their own country and not that of the countries of emigration and of immigration. This also holds for the subsequent movements of persons who have already reached a foreign land, and who, whether they emigrated in conformity with or in violation of national laws, are no longer subject to the provisions of these laws, except with their own consent or so far as these laws can be imposed on them. This is the position of refugees, persons without nationality, fugitives, expelled persons, persons who have committed political offences, and expatriated persons, who are therefore all more or less subject to international law. Again, international questions include all measures implying legal action taken on foreign territory, where the legislation of the country has no force : such operations as taking a census, exercising some form of super-

[1] We cannot indeed forget that the fact that a question is domestic does not at all prevent it from being discussed in the international forum, or foreign Governments from formulating and recommending solutions which may not be those already adopted by the national legislation. The solution given to a domestic problem has often international reactions which justify and necessitate this new examination. On examining the international conventions that have been concluded it will even be found that very many of them deal with problems of a domestic order which, after being given their national solution, are re-examined by the international institutions in their universal aspect ; and almost all the international discussions bear traces of this desire of the Governments for mutual conviction of the necessity of adapting their domestic legislation to admitted universal needs. Discussions on purely international problems, on the contrary, implying a certain action of one Government on another, and not constituting universal problems which are identical for all countries, are rare and of a special gravity. To determine how far the migration problems of a domestic character enumerated in the text can be examined internationally is a different question, which is beyond the scope of this article. It may suffice to observe here that these problems are recognised as domestic, and that the countries concerned have alone the right to decide on this subject, whether they adopt a national solution or accept one which is the result of international agreement.

vision, enforcing an order, recruiting or placing workers, taking evidence on commission, or serving a writ cannot be carried out abroad without the tacit or formal consent of the country on whose territory the operation is to be performed, whether a bilateral agreement to the effect has been concluded or recourse is had to a general convention. These cases of intervention abroad, which are a consequence of the development of national laws, necessitate an increasing number of international agreements, if the satisfactory mutual relations desired by the countries in question are to be maintained. Another frequent source of international arrangements lies in the development of protective legislation, which, if it is to be effective, must be established by common agreement between the countries concerned. Hence the multiplicity of bilateral agreements and multilateral Labour Conventions concluded at the instance of the International Labour Organisation. Take the case of an Act on workmen's compensation when there are dependants abroad, or of an Act on old-age and invalidity pensions when the beneficiary wishes to return to his native country: neither can be truly effective unless there are international agreements.

It must therefore be recognised that in the daily practice of nations there are many cases where international intervention is necessary, and that hardly a week passes in which an international agreement is not negotiated or concluded in this matter. The growth of these agreements between States is quite as rapid as that of national legislation.

The precise limits to be drawn between domestic questions and international rights may be discussed for ever, but no one can seriously dispute that there are questions of both kinds, and that if laws on *emigration* are laid down by countries of emigration, and laws on *immigration* by countries of immigration, the regulation of *migration* beyond the national frontiers of each State is within the sphere of international law. On this point the possibility, nay, the necessity of agreement is so obvious that the theoretical difficulties must inevitably be overcome before long. It must be recognised, however, that in practice the problem has not yet been solved.

Emigration as a Social and Political Problem

There is another and more delicate question. Is emigration an individual or a collective phenomenon? Does legislation on this subject belong to private or public law?

It is difficult to answer this question categorically, for opinions have varied much of late. The phenomenon of migration is at present changing so rapidly that what was true yesterday often no longer corresponds to the realities of to-day.

Quite recently, and even in the years immediately preceding the war, emigration was primarily the manifestation of an individual will and was almost solely within the sphere of private law. The freedom to migrate was practically complete ; the outgoing emigrant need consult no one but himself. The policy of *laissez faire, laissez passer* had been maintained in this field much longer than for most other forms of human activity. The passport had become an obsolete formality, with which the emigrant had generally not to concern himself. His departure, his journey, his settlement abroad took place without supervision, as without protection. He could blame only himself if he failed in the bold undertaking of transplanting his person and home.

Those days of freedom are past. Under the influence of many causes, accentuated by the war frame of mind, the freedom to migrate has disappeared almost everywhere. Countries of immigration and of emigration have alike adopted legislation, laid down regulations, concluded treaties in numbers increasing week by week.[1] All of these tend in some measure to lessen the anarchy of migration movements.

The causes of these changes are many and their action is irresistible. On the one hand, the individual seeks more protection, and to the perils of individual emigration generally prefers a milder system, thanks to the support of his country. On the other, the functions of Governments in the field of migration, as in so many others, have been much widened. The pursuit of individual ends has had to give way to the accomplishment of national functions, and the happiness of the individual is nowadays sought more in the health of the body politic than in the satisfaction of personal ambitions.

In these new conditions the emigrant is no longer authorised to leave one country freely and enter another, except under the

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[1] The International Labour Office has recently published an important work in three volumes on *Migration Laws and Treaties* (Vol. I : *Emigration Laws and Regulations* ; xx + 403 pp. ; 7s. 6d. ; Vol. II : *Immigration Laws and Regulations* ; viii + 486 pp. ; 7s. 6d. ; Vol. III (in the press) : *International Treaties and Conventions*). This work, which analyses the most recent legislative and diplomatic action of some 300 countries and colonies throughout the world, will provide the reader with all the information that can be desired on the very varied aspects of the regulation of migration.

supervision of the national authorities and furnished, with or without his consent, with all the support considered indispensable for the success of his enterprise.

The Governments of the countries of emigration have multiplied their protective institutions; they have regulated and improved conditions of land and sea transport, sought for and drawn up favourable contracts of employment, selected the strong who are authorised to depart, and eliminated all whose physical or intellectual weakness seems likely to lead to failure; at great expense collected and widely distributed the necessary information, provided the necessary technical and general instruction before departure, increased the number of institutions for relief and insurance and extended their scope, established agents abroad for protection and defence, created national associations, schools, and churches for migrants, and done all in their power to ensure that their former citizens shall enjoy equality of treatment with nationals in the "foreign" country.

It has thus become an obligation that the State which authorises an emigrant to leave the country should also ensure the success of this authorised and carefully prepared emigration. But in return for this protection, the Governments demand that the emigrant while abroad should remain a good patriot, a faithful citizen, repaying his country in affection and devotion for all the sacrifices it has made for him.

The position is similar in countries of immigration. They too encourage the protection of immigrants, to whom they give equality of treatment. Under the head of undesirables they exclude all those for whom it seems too uncertain that immigration will be a success. They willingly admit newcomers to their charitable institutions, their insurance and provident funds, on the same terms as nationals. They provide immigrants with conditions of life that are generally more liberal than those to which they were accustomed in their country of origin. They organise schools, churches, and associations for them, these too being "national", but from another point of view. They create openings for them with infinite possibilities of success. But, as the price to be paid for all these favours, they ask and demand in their turn that the newcomers shall rapidly assimilate with the nation and become good citizens, and that they shall become naturalised, every facility being given for this operation, which will ensure them even more complete equality of treatment.

But it will be clear that the development of these two policies,

which are based on considerations of the same kind, must lead to contradictory results, almost inevitably entailing an essential conflict over the nationality of emigrants, whom the one side wishes to retain, the other to acquire. And as, in spite of all efforts, assimilation is inevitable, even if slow, ardent patriots, who are as powerless to keep their emigrants at home as to prevent the formation of ethnic nuclei that are difficult of assimilation, meet on the common ground of trying to stem the currents that both sides consider dangerous.

Understood in this way, protection changes its aspect. It loses its individual character, and becomes social and national, thus modifying the whole nature of the problem. The emigrant ceases to be an atom of humanity isolated and anonymous, in whom no one is interested, but who gives no one any cause for anxiety and may enter anywhere, and he becomes instead a unit enrolled in the ranks of the nation, who can no doubt count on the support of all, but whose every movement is governed with ever growing authority by the Governments which take the responsibility for his success or failure.

No longer a phenomenon affecting only the individual, emigration tends to become a political problem, and its evolution in this direction is now very rapid. It is becoming more and more customary to limit the authorisation to leave or enter a country to those whose departure or arrival will prove an indisputable advantage to the country concerned, who will contribute to its economic or political expansion. All others are stopped at the frontier, regardless of their personal preferences. And since on these points the countries of emigration and of immigration have ideas of what is to their national interest which are difficult to reconcile, migration becomes more and more difficult, and its volume is reduced. This is clearly demonstrated by the figures.[1] In order to give effect to their patriotic aims, countries of emigration and immigration alike pile up their legislation.

But side by side with the essential political consideration of the assimilation or defence of the emigrant citizen, other considerations also appear. There are, for instance, the questions of race. Will Negroes and the yellow races be allowed to enter territories on which the white race is already established ? Or, to adopt another standpoint, how is homogeneity to be best assured in an Empire

[1] Cf. in particular *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVII, Nos. 4 and 5, April and May 1928 : " Seasonal Fluctuations in Migration ". Cf. also *Migration Movements 1920-1924*; Studies and Reports, Series O, No. 2; Geneva, 1926.

that risks losing its unity if the immigration of unassimilable foreigners in vast numbers is allowed ? And rather than allow free play to an emigration movement that will be lost on foreign soil, would it not be better to employ the surplus labour of the mother-country on the cultivation of national or colonial land ?

On every side great problems are being raised, for which each country tends to adopt an attitude corresponding to its own interests, and which soon inevitably take on an entirely new political aspect. Has a country the right to retain fertile areas that it cannot at present populate as an empty reserve ? Has an overnumerous population the right to emigrate, and if so, where to ? What process of distribution of population will ensure the highest productivity and most profitable occupation of the earth, as well as the general welfare ? And even if there is no question as yet of formal law, may it not be said that States have mutual obligations of assistance and good will, which may give rise to negotiations and agreements ?

The discussion of all these problems has taken on quite new proportions since the Rome Conference. These great problems of to-day go far beyond the questions of private law affecting the individual migrant of last century, and compared with them even the social problems of protection now seem somewhat narrow. It is realised that national laws are powerless to solve them, and the need is felt of submitting them to thorough international investigation before an assembly having the necessary competence.

The Function of the Geneva Organisations

It was in this way that the need of entrusting questions of this kind to the permanent international bodies became apparent. Technical experts and diplomats alike were in fact perfectly aware of the essential importance of the problems underlying their discussions and going far beyond the scope of the Conference. The stormy debates that had taken place a few months earlier at Rio de Janeiro in the Inter-Parliamentary Commercial Conference were still in the minds of all, particularly the diplomats accredited to America, and were a sufficient reminder of the ease with which passions can be unleashed.

It seems as if the centre of decisive international deliberations can be found only in the pacific organisations of Geneva, which are accustomed to international negotiations in their modern form,

equipped for research, bargaining, and practical achievement; they are in permanent, or at least regular, session, capable of carrying out later in a new form what to-day appears unrealisable, and able to obtain the attention, and often even the actual presence, of the real leaders of the peoples. Only there could the problem be examined in all its complexity, and taking due account of the reactions of all kinds to which it must lead. And it was felt that even there examination would be slow and difficult.

Geneva is the only meeting place for those who own the greater part of the unoccupied territories of the world, and those who wish to colonise these lands. There alone, after traversing a thousand difficulties and prejudices, is there any hope of discovering and formulating the demands that can be satisfied. Even the technical experts and diplomats at Havana had difficulties to contend with; there was antagonism between countries of emigration and of immigration, between European and American conceptions, which might have led to serious disputes but for the tact of the President and the strong political sense of the Cubans.

We spoke above of referring the matter back to the Geneva organisations. At Havana, in fact, no distinction was made between the League of Nations and the International Labour Office, and nearly all the resolutions adopted applied indifferently to both institutions. No attempt was made to assign limits to their respective powers, nor even to distinguish between political problems and problems of assistance, which are within the competence of the League of Nations, and problems of labour and protection, which are within that of the International Labour Office; between problems relating to foreign workers and those relating to other migrants.

The difficulty of distinguishing between domestic and international questions, between problems of private law, problems of protection, and political problems, the impossibility of drawing any clear lines between all these, and the need of referring their examination back to their natural centre, left their mark on all the discussions of the Conference and made them seem rather pointless. Indications of this state of mind may be found in connection with many of the questions discussed and voted on at Havana, but opinions were, so to speak, crystallised round a general proposal submitted by the Cuban Delegation, which showed how far the matters the delegations really had at heart went beyond the technical problems which apparently claimed their attention.

The "Declaration of the Principles of Migration"

The brilliant Delegation sent by the Cuban Government to the Conference made, in fact, a remarkable attempt to drag the meeting out of the rut of details in which it seemed to have stuck, by at last giving it some essential points to discuss. The fate of its proposal clearly showed the vices of the procedure adopted.

Considerable progress had already been made with the work of the Conference when, somewhat unexpectedly and without having secured the indispensable support in advance, or having convinced others to the extent necessary for the success of its enterprise, the Cuban Delegation on 10 April submitted a resolution entitled "Declaration of the Principles of Migration", which went to the very heart of the matter, and consisted of a collection of definite proposals on essential points.

In the first place, it proposed to ask countries of emigration and immigration to proceed to a compilation of their national laws so as to facilitate the early codification of the regulations on which an international agreement might be reached. This first proposal, relating to the collection of information, was accepted without difficulty and incorporated in the resolutions adopted.

But on three other points there was at once an animated discussion. The Cuban Delegation proposed the appointment of a committee of legal experts, to be responsible for the codification — if possible complete and world-wide, but at least gradual and progressive — of all matters relating to migration; next, the adoption of a declaration of "general principles" to serve as a basis for this international regulation; and finally, the creation of a new International Emigration and Immigration Office, which, in agreement with the International Labour Office, would be responsible for giving effect to the decisions of the Conference and organising migration movements.

Objections to the examination of these problems were raised in every quarter. In the first place, it was pointed out that this important proposal had not been previously submitted to the Governments, and that the delegates had no power to accept it. It was also stated that the existing organisations at Geneva already paid as much attention to the study of migration questions as the Governments wished, and that, instead of replacing them by a new office, it was much more to the point to congratulate them on their activity and on the successes they had so far obtained. Finally,

it was urged that the preparatory work for a " complete and world-wide codification ", even if " gradual and progressive ", had not yet been carried out, and that the discussion of the principles it was proposed to establish would necessitate preliminary study and delays that could not be expected of the Conference.

In view of these observations, made in particular by the very large and competent Spanish and Japanese Delegations, prolonged negotiations began between the delegations and, in committee, interrupting the whole work of the Conference for some days. Finally, the Cubans withdrew their demand for the immediate codification of migration law by legal experts, but they held to their two remaining proposals, which were put to the vote in committee.

The result did not come up to their expectations. The question of setting up a new international migration office, which had already been the subject of certain negotiations at Rome, but in view of the opposition then met with had not been put to the vote, was this time discussed and settled after a very lively debate in which practically all the delegations took part. A Spanish amendment was moved, which annulled the essence of the proposal by stating that there was no need to create a new international body, as the present institutions at Geneva and the Rome Institute of Agriculture were already carrying out their task quite adequately, and there was every reason to hope that they would continue to do so. This amendment obtained the almost unanimous support of the delegates, 24 out of the 27 Governments voting being in favour. The need of examining emigration questions at Geneva within the framework of general problems was thus affirmed by an impressive majority.

The declaration of principles itself had rather more success. It had been cleverly thought out, and proclaimed both the freedom to emigrate and the right of countries of emigration and immigration to enact the necessary laws for protecting their institutions against abuses and dangers. It recognised the need for equality of treatment between nationals and immigrants, while affirming the necessity for special provisions for recruiting abroad, and also the right of countries of immigration to fix for themselves the hygienic and eugenic conditions to be demanded on admission.

The declaration, which, in spite of its cautiousness, cut to the quick of political problems, was fiercely contested in committee by various delegations. The Japanese Delegation stated officially that it could in no way engage its Government to examine problems that were neither technical nor practical. The principles of the

Cuban proposal were in fact of such a kind that the Japanese Government had not in the least contemplated the possibility of discussing them at the Conference, although Japan had sent a very large Delegation (eighteen members), including experts on all the technical aspects of migration problems. Finally, after a somewhat confused vote, the " general principles " were declared adopted by nine votes to two, and eighteen abstentions. In view of this somewhat disappointing result the Cuban Delegation withdrew this proposal too, and it was not put to the vote in the full Conference.

The Conference, however, instructed a sub-committee to redraft what was left of the proposal, and in this way a resolution was drawn up on the general principle of codification, which, in spite of the curtailment it suffered, perhaps constitutes the most constructive part of the work of the Conference. It recommended that the countries should immediately proceed to a compilation of their legislation on migration with a view to facilitating the codification of matters on which international agreement has been reached. It also asked that the Presidential Committee of the Havana Conference should be made responsible for the preparatory work for this codification, and that the Geneva institutions should for their part continue their work relating to migration, " which has hitherto been done so effectively ".

Even in this shortened form put forward as a compromise, the proposals were not received with unanimous approval. After the Japanese Delegation had had its proposal rejected, to leave out everything in the resolution except the recommendation about the compilation of national laws, the various paragraphs of the resolution were adopted, but with a large number of delegations abstaining.

The Mexican Proposal

Even more lively and more heated was the discussion on the proposal of the Mexican Delegate relating to the application of the decisions on migration taken by the Pan-American Conference held a few days before, also at Havana. These decisions referred, among other things, to the need for equality of civil rights between nationals and aliens. In itself this point would have given rise to no objection, but the conclusions adopted displayed a very definite tendency in favour of an American policy; as, for instance, when they made the recognition of the rights of human

beings subordinate to the maintenance of national sovereignty, and authorised discrimination in immigration laws according to the continent of origin of the immigrant. After an impassioned debate, revealing a dangerous tension of spirits, the competent committee was somewhat surprised to find itself ultimately unanimous in asking the Migration Conference — which could not reopen the discussion on proposals already adopted by the Pan-American Conference — to take note of these decisions, and to declare that there would be no objection to examining at a future session other problems raised in a similar way. An acute difference of opinion between the European and American delegations, which had seemed to threaten at one moment, was thus averted.

But to avoid problems is not to solve them. The difficulty for the technical Conference of finding adequate solutions was clearly apparent everywhere, even when it was discussing purely technical points, which sometimes suddenly assumed a political aspect, though carefully worded resolutions tried to keep them within the more modest bounds of questions of administration. The necessity, and at the same time the impossibility, of examining all the aspects of the various questions manifestly prevented the Conference from going further than merely passing mild resolutions.

The Next Conference on Migration

It seems very unlikely that a third meeting of the Conference on Emigration and Immigration will be held in similar conditions. It is true that on the proposal of the Delegate of the Dominican Republic, the Havana Conference expressed a wish that " a third International Migration Conference should meet at Madrid ". The important part played by the Spanish Delegation fully justified a proposal in this sense, but though it was finally passed " by acclamation " two important reservations were added : " at a date to be determined " and " after a favourable opinion has been given by the majority of the Governments concerned ".

The Spanish Delegation itself has made a point of explaining the bearing of this vote. Its report on the Conference, published in the official " Bulletin " of the Spanish Directorate of Immigration[1], notes that although the Conference in principle approved

[1] *Boletín de la Subdirección General de Emigración*, Tercera época, Tomo I. No. 3, 1928, pp. 1064-1099.

of the holding of another special conference, at Madrid, " all the delegates left with the slightly embittered impression that a third conference never would be held " — never, at least, in the same conditions as at Havana.

Again by acclamation, the Conference adopted another and very legitimate testimony of its gratitude, when it asked that " the Presidential Committee of the Havana Conference should be entrusted with the preparatory work for the Madrid Conference " ; but here too the vote was subject to two reservations, adopted by crushing majorities, which had in fact been suggested by the Cuban Delegation itself. The first was that the Havana Committee might appeal to members of the former Rome Committee, and the second that, in agreement with the Governments, it might transfer its seat to some place better suited than Havana for international meetings.

The question is what place ? The resolution makes no specific recommendation, and the participation of the United States in the vote perhaps made it difficult to be more precise. But the underlying idea was indicated by the President of the Conference, Professor Sanchez de Fuentes, in his closing speech, when he declared that the seat would have to be transferred " to a place more suitable for the representation of the different Governments " ; " nearer to the seat of the forthcoming Conference and of the international institutions ", added Mr. Armenteros, the leader of the Cuban Delegation. The intentions of the Cuban group, it may be added, were indicated more precisely in their great and interesting " Declaration of the Principles of Migration ", which asked that the new International Emigration and Immigration Office should be set up at Geneva, with a view to close and effective collaboration with the other international organisations and centres.

The report submitted by the Rome Committee to the Havana Conference on the effect given to its resolutions had shown that the most important actual results achieved were the work of the international institutions at Geneva. In its many votes on practical questions, the Havana Conference had frequent occasion to note the necessity for this collaboration. In this respect the character of the Havana Conference differed substantially from that of the Rome Conference. The latter, convened by a Government which then wished to develop its own migration movements and presided over by a specialist in migration problems (Mr. de Michelis, Italian Commissary-General of Emigration), had believed in its work and had wished to transform the Conferences into a new institution,

so as to speed up the necessarily slow pace of the activities of Geneva. The Havana Conference, on the contrary, benefiting by the experience of Rome, aware of the difficulties of the task, and noting in particular the change in the policy of the Italian Government, recognised that the only practical results, persistent even if slow, were being achieved by the " old " Geneva institutions.

This was why certain members of the Conference, while proposing Madrid as the seat of the next Conference, hoped for a complete change of methods, and expressed the wish that the new session, at Madrid, should this time be held under the aegis of the Geneva organisations, follow their methods of preparation and procedure, and by keeping its programme within more modest limits prove more effective in its results ; in other words, its agenda should no longer comprise all migration questions, but only a certain number of definite points ripe for international solution by way of formal conventions. Underneath the diplomatic form of the resolutions adopted this idea finds clear expression in the decisions of the Conference.

This appears also to be the opinion of the Delegation of the Spanish Government, which the Havana Conference designated as its heir presumptive, its successor to carry on its work. The report of the Delegation, already mentioned, also points out the necessity " of turning into new channels the international work of regulating and organising migration movements, which, as Mr. Albert Thomas recently stated in his speech to the World Population Conference, is indeed a work for peace or for war. That is why it is necessary to surmount the somewhat pessimistic impression that may still be left by the Havana Conference, and, by following new paths and introducing the necessary modifications, to carry out a work which is as useful to humanity as to the peace of the world. "

It is in this direction and on these new foundations that a Conference on Migration may lead to results of solid value. To have shown this and made it felt is the great merit of the Havana Conference.

An Enquiry into the Conditions of Work and Life of Journalists

by

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The International Labour Office has recently published the results of an enquiry carried out by it on the conditions of work and life of journalists.[1] *In the article below Mr. Artus has not tried to summarise the very large quantity of information collected by the Office on the various economic and social aspects of the professional life of the journalist in upwards of twenty countries, but rather to select certain points from the report for special attention. After an account of the conditions in which the Office came to undertake the study in question, he deals in turn with the characteristic features of modern journalism, some interesting experiments described in the report, and some of the problems on which the interest of members of the profession is especially centred.*

I

EARLY in 1925 the International Association of Journalists accredited to the League of Nations, being much concerned at the situation of intellectual workers on newspapers and being of opinion that accurate knowledge of this situation would make it easier to solve the problems raised by it, requested the International Labour Office to undertake a study of the conditions of work and life of journalists in various countries.

For a certain number of years, indeed, the profession of journalism had been passing through a period of serious depression, doubtless due in large part to the economic upheaval which followed the war, but also partly to the internal changes and the evolution of the profession itself in the course of the last twenty or thirty years.

Journalism is a profession of recent birth. It is one of the four

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[1] International Labour Office : *Conditions of Work and Life of Journalists.* Studies and Reports, Series, L, No. 2. Geneva, 1928. 219 pp. Price 4s., $1.

or five youngest crafts in the world. We need not forget its venerable ancestors in Rome and China, or those " gazettes " which appeared in different European countries in the sixteenth century, or even those sheets which appeared in larger numbers towards the end of the eighteenth century ; but all these were only forerunners. The moment at which the great modern newspaper was born and the stages of its growth are matters of definite knowledge.

The first impulse was given shortly after 1810 by the invention of the printing machine, which replaced the old hand press that had been used for centuries. This most important invention was followed in 1814 by a new method of manufacturing ink and a little later by a rapid method of type founding. In 1844 the telegraph made its appearance, and in 1850 came the invention of wood pulp paper. Twelve years later the rotary printing machine was invented, while the last stage was the invention of type-setting machines — linotype and monotype — which completely changed the processes followed for five centuries and synchronised type setting with the accelerated pace of printing. Besides all these technical processes, between 1830 and 1840 there came a new method of organisation which helped to make the newspaper the indispensable factor in modern life which it has become. The idea then spread of calling in the assistance of a powerful ally, advertising. Thanks to this, the newspaper became cheap and was easily sold. Its circulation was increased tenfold at one stroke.

With each of these inventions and improvements the Press grew and extended in a surprising fashion. The present-day figures tell the tale of this development. A century ago there were some hundreds of periodicals in the world. To day there are more than 3,000 dailies and 4,000 periodicals in Germany alone. There are about 1,000 periodicals in Belgium, 1,500 in Canada, several thousands in China, more than 2,000 in Spain, and more than 1,000 in Denmark. The United States has 2,400 dailies and 14,800 weeklies. In France, Paris alone has about a hundred daily papers. Great Britain has 2,400 periodicals, Italy and the Netherlands 1,000 each, Japan more than 2,000, and Poland more than 5,000. Switzerland has 2,000 papers and Czechoslovakia 2,000, of which 720 appear in the city of Prague alone. The 320 daily newspapers in Denmark have a daily circulation of 1,100,000, or one copy for every three inhabitants. In the United States the total circulation of the daily papers in 1923 was 35,730,000 copies. Several French papers have a circulation of over 500,000, and an English paper has one of over a million.

It will be quite clear that such a development has not taken place without important changes in the methods of working and in the internal organisation of newspapers. A modern newspaper is not founded, manufactured, or administered in the same way as a paper of thirty years ago. During the last few decades the methods of large-scale industry have rapidly invaded the Press. At the present day an important periodical may be compared in almost every respect to an industrial undertaking. Like a factory, it is owned by a limited company; as in a factory, there is at the head a paid manager who is responsible to a board of directors. Frequently very large sums are involved in its management. In 1925, the newspapers of the United States received 750,000,000 dollars for advertisements; the cost of the 2,980,000 tons of paper used by them in the same year may well be imagined. The cost of publication of the English newspapers in 1926 amounted to more than £62,000,000. One of them, a London daily, made a net profit of £226,000 in 1927. As in large-scale industry, so also in the Press a process of concentration is at present going on; large trusts are being formed controlling all or part of the newspapers in one country. In the United States one of these trusts controls 24 dailies, 14 weeklies, and 11 magazines, with a total circulation of about 13,000,000 copies, which may mean a total of about 40,000,000 readers. This phenomenon, which is already far advanced in the United States, has begun in certain European countries, in particular in Great Britain and Germany, and appears to be gaining ground rapidly.

The journalist of our day is thus dependent on a vast organisation of a distinctly industrial type, in which he finds new rules and regulations, specialisation to a degree hitherto unknown, complicated machinery, and, above all, an impersonal power turning a deaf ear to the voice of mere individuals. There are considerable material cares: the price of ink, the supply of paper, the organisation of distribution, and advertising, that indispensable source of revenue which requires constant attention. In addition, there are the anxieties caused by the claims of the printing staff, which is well organised and intends to be heard. In the middle of all this organisation and all these material cares the lot of the journalist has been somewhat neglected. Everything in the newspaper has been transformed; everything has been adjusted with meticulous care, but there has been no attempt to define precisely the situation of the editor and the reporter who, in this mechanism where rights and duties have otherwise been exactly distributed, remain subject to

arbitrary decisions and the play of forces beyond their control.

The confusion, hardships, and difficulties created by this internal transformation of the Press, by this penetration or invasion by the methods of large-scale capitalism, were reinforced after the war by the effect of the economic depresssion which, while felt by all workers, struck its hardest blow at intellectual workers, and especially journalists. The cost of living rose rapidly; salaries remained stationary. Unemployment appeared, either because papers failed as a result of the general depression or because the number of journalists was increasing through the influx of new comers from other intellectual occupations which were themselves hard hit.

The publications of journalists' associations during this period are full of appeals and complaints which show clearly the wretched conditions into which journalists in certain countries had fallen. It was no rare thing to find salaries at pre-war rates while the cost of living had increased threefold. In March 1924 journalists viewed with anxiety the return of the fine weather which would force them to leave off their overcoats and show their patched garments in the street. Here is a tangible item in the tragic situation of the intellectual worker, whose social position involves him in certain obligations with regard to dress while he and his family are a prey to hunger — for hunger was a reality in those days.[1] In 1920 there were numerous journalists who " could not have kept alive but for the charity of rich merchants who allowed some of them to sell on commission to retailers. Others had to do copying or accounts at night to provide food for their families. "[2] In Belgium the Professional Press Union, in a letter to the managers of newspapers, asked that journalists should be paid a minimum of 600 francs a month, since, as they pointed out, skilled workers in industry were going to have their wages raised to more than 800 francs.[3]

That is merely one aspect of the alarming situation of journalists in various countries at the moment when the International Association of Journalists accredited to the League of Nations requested the International Labour Office to undertake a study which should enable members of the profession to realise its position,

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[1] Speech of the President of the French Association of Journalists, November 1925.

[2] *Le Journaliste* (organ of the professional associations of the Belgian daily Press), Nos. 8-12, Aug.-Dec. 1926.

[3] *Ibid.*

and to see the solutions adopted in certain countries (for it was known that successful solutions had been found) for the acute problems confronting them.

II

The International Labour Office foresaw the difficulties of a study in a sphere where statistics are non-existent and the greatest diversity reigns, but it decided to undertake the enquiry requested. It began by sending a questionnaire to the chief organisations of journalists in thirty-three countries. About sixty groups and a certain number of individuals were consulted. The Office was quite conscious of the inherent defects of this method of investigation — slowness, vagueness, gaps, etc. — but the choice was imposed by budgetary reasons. Most of the defects foreseen were met with. The answers were long in coming; several gave only incomplete information. It is evident that in many countries the position of journalists is so varied and their conditions of work so individual that no one could give a complete picture of the state of the profession.

This first stage of the enquiry, however, cleared the ground. The next step was to complete the material received. The Office considered that the best method of doing so was to show this material to those concerned and ask their assistance in filling any gaps in it. A provisional report was drawn up and roneoed at the end of 1926 and was then sent to the chief organisations of journalists, which were requested to communicate their remarks, corrections, or additions. It is the result of this second consultation, supplemented by various other researches, which has just been published by the International Labour Office under the title *Conditions of Work and Life of Journalists*.

We have certainly no intention of summarising here the 219 pages of this study, which deals point by point with the various economic and social aspects of the professional life of the journalist in more than twenty countries. It seems worth while, however, to try to select from its pages a few of the principal characteristics of modern journalism, and to call attention to certain interesting experiments and to one or two problems on which the attention of members of the profession is especially concentrated.

One of the most interesting features of this study by the International Labour Office is that it gives a vivid picture of the evolution of a typical intellectual occupation placed, as has already

been mentioned, under the conditions of modern large-scale capitalism. At a time like this when the question of intellectual work is somewhat acute and when public opinion in various countries is considering the problems arising from the position of brain workers, it is by no means unimportant to be able to examine at close quarters the reactions and the aims of an important group of these workers.

Can journalism be considered as a characteristic example of an intellectual occupation ? There does not seem room for any difference of opinion on this point. Indeed, whatever definition may be given to the term " intellectual workers " — and there have been many — the journalist can always be included within its limits. It is true that he does not belong to the class of intellectual workers whose product is purchased directly by the consumers — if these terms may be used in talking of creations of the brain — and who, like the doctor or lawyer, deal directly with their clients. He receives his remuneration, as does the dramatic artist or the industrial engineer, through an employer on whom he is dependent. While it must be recognised that this situation raises all kinds of special problems, it does not affect the intellectual nature of the journalist's profession ; it tends, moreover, to become the situation of an ever increasing number of brain workers, and is becoming more and more frequent in professions such as medicine, where formerly it was quite exceptional. It is therefore no exaggeration to say that the study of the present tendencies among journalists (who, it may be added, have a very high sense of the essentially intellectual nature of their work and are anxious to fulfil all the obligations it lays upon them) may give valuable information concerning the evolution of the intellectual occupations in general and throw light upon experiments which may be useful not only to members of the profession of journalism but to all brain workers.

III

The first fact that strikes the reader of the study by the Office is the great disparity in the position of journalists in various countries. It is true that journalism is not the only sphere in which this may be observed ; in any international study of a social problem differences of this kind are to be expected. There are, however, few spheres

in which the diversity is so striking. In most other realms of human activity conditions have been made more or less uniform, at least when the circumstances are similar; in journalism, on the contrary, there are considerable differences, not only between countries in which the general evolution of the Press has been along very different lines, but also between countries where conditions in this respect are practically similar.

It is quite easy to find two countries, each having an important daily Press of the same type, at the same stage of development as regards circulation, advertisements, and the general nature of the printed paper, while the intellectual workers engaged on these papers have nothing in common, except the similarly of their tasks. Such differences can scarcely be explained except by differences in the attitude to professional questions of the members of the profession, and by the independence of the national markets, a phenomenon characteristic of the Press which has enabled journalists in various countries to organise their profession on very different bases without any competition arising to disturb these more or less independent mechanisms.

There is great diversity indeed, but it does not appear likely to continue for long, for it seems to be chiefly the result of the more or less advanced stage reached in the same process of evolution. Some have been led sooner than others to embark on a course in which all will probably meet in the end; such at least is the impression drawn from the tendencies described in the study by the International Labour Office.

This leads to a second observation, namely, the gradual change — quicker in some countries, slower in others — in the attitude of journalists to professional problems and to the creation of a very definite system of trade unionism in journalism. In view of the fact that intellectual workers have for long remained true to individualism and shown a strong distaste for all concerted action, this change provides matter for attention. It will not, however, surprise those who have been closely following the evolution of the intellectual professions during recent years and who have observed how these professions are steadily moving towards methods of organised defence. No group, however, shows this movement so clearly as the journalists and in none has it progressed so rapidly or obtained such remarkable results. In the course of its enquiry the International Labour Office has collected a number of facts which bear eloquent testimony to the transformation which is at present taking place in intellectual careers :

This transformation . . . which has taken place during the last two decades, has occurred under the pressure of circumstances; hesitating at first and delayed by all sorts of experiments and contradictory efforts, it rapidly gained momentum as soon as the members of the profession in certain countries arrived, after ripe experience, at the conclusion that it was henceforth their last resource.

In a general way and taking into account many peculiarly national circumstances, the development of trade union principles was effected parallel with the transformation of the Press and the constitution of a sharply defined professional journalism. As the great daily Press developed and the journalistic profession assumed a more and more definite form, the Press associations, which were purely idealist to begin with, were gradually penetrated by a spirit of professional solidarity, which, under the influence of increasing material difficulties, changed into a definite determination to fight in self-defence.[1]

It is difficult to state up to just what point the trade unionism of the manual workers served as an example to the journalists. The latter were naturally in a position to observe the effects of trade union organisation at close quarters, among the newspaper printers, and they could see what an effective system of defence it was in time of economic trouble. A comparison of the wage curves for printers and for the editorial staff since the beginning of the war was very illuminating, and gave rise to fertile reflections. Moreover, an increasing number of newspapers had columns devoted to labour and industry, and the journalists who specialised in this work acquired a more and more extensive knowledge of trade union questions, which ultimately benefited their colleagues. For a great number of journalists, therefore, the example of the manual workers was decisive.

It is clear, however, that they did not all react in the same way. In certain countries they were attached to that individualism which is characteristic of their social class and considered that trade union methods of defence were alien to their profession; they were consequently vigorously opposed to their introduction. For them it may be said, as is pointed out in the study, that the trade union activities of the manual workers, far from serving as a model, were an obstacle to the adoption of the principles of professional defence.

In this connection it would be interesting to refer to certain discussions on which the study does not touch but which illustrate very clearly the anxiety aroused in many minds by the prospect of having to employ trade union methods and principles at some

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[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 29.

future date. These discussions filled the bulletin of an important association of journalists for many years. In it there may be followed all the symptoms of an acute fear lest journalists might be confused not merely with manual workers but even with salaried employees. The wish is also ardently expressed that journalism may keep its distinctive characteristics and its traditional attitude. It should, however, be added that after several years the discussion ended in the adoption of the principle, which had been scornfully rejected some time before, that conditions of employment in the profession should be subject to a definite system of regulations, statutory or otherwise. One after another the associations of journalists have followed the same path, even associations which had long been afraid of compromising their cause by employing trade union methods, or had thought that they would obtain better results by repudiating any signs of a combative tendency and remaining faithful to the old system of more or less individual bargaining.

This journalistic trade unionism has sometimes been carried to its logical conclusion. Once the trade union was formed, journalists faced the question of affiliation, and then it sometimes happened — there is at least one striking case of this kind — that they turned towards the oldest and best equipped fighting organisation in the sphere of labour. " The day came ", writes the general secretary of one of the chief national associations, " when, driven by the logic of events, we decided that just as unity between ourselves was good, unity with our fellow workers in industry would be good. "[1] This case, that of the English National Union of Journalists, is sufficiently important for a passage from the Office study to be quoted in this connection :

[The Union] sought allies among the workers whose long experience in trade union matters had familiarised them with all the questions of remuneration and working conditions in general which were occupying its attention; in 1919, after a referendum among all its members, it affiliated itself to the Printing and Kindred Trades Federation, thus realising in the Press one of those rare instances in which intellectual and manual workers of one branch of production are organised together. This affiliation, to which the journalists grouped in the National Union strongly hold, was not open to question again until 1926.

A certain opposition then seemed to declare itself. The Union had just been put into a very difficult position by the general strike called by the Trades Union Congress. The Printing Trades Federation had obeyed the strike order and the committee of the National Union of

[1] *The Journalist*, Vol. X, No. 8, p. 1.

Journalists had to decide its attitude. It concluded that its obligations as an affiliated member obliged it to take part in the movement, and it gave instructions to this effect to all the members of the Union. A certain hesitation was perceptible in the ranks of the Union. Many members, having doubts as to the interpretation of inter-trade union obligations, abstained from taking part in the movement, which, as a matter of fact, came to an end soon after. It was in these circumstances that a new ballot was held for the entire Union on the subject of the affiliation to the Printing Trades Federation. The result was an overwhelming majority in favour of the affiliation, which was consequently maintained. Many members of the Union, moreover, hold that it has already rendered a great service to their cause. " I will not say ", wrote the general secretary of the Union, " that our Union would have utterly failed had it not allied itself to the other workers. It would probably have succeeded in a degree, but not without many strikes and lockouts, and many incidents. . . . Our alliance with the Printing and Kindred Trades Federation made the path of progress smooth.[1]

It should be pointed out, however, that at present affiliation to large workers' organisations is an exception in journalism[2] and that most of the professional associations prefer to maintain complete independence. Many of them, however, have been discussing this question and keep the possibility, so to speak, in reserve as a sort of threat in the event of their independent action meeting with too strong resistance from the employers.

The trade union organisation of journalism is not limited to the various national territories but has also extended to the international sphere. The Office study gives a full description of the development of this movement, from the first efforts made in 1890 by the International Union of Press Associations, which was widely comprehensive and accepted indifferently organisations of journalists and organisations of publishers, up to the work of the International Association of Journalists accredited to the League of Nations, whose request was the origin of the enquiry, and of the International Federation of Journalists, the latest arrival, founded in 1926, whose sphere of activity covers all the problems studied in the enquiry, and which in two years has succeeded in uniting the principal national organisations of nineteen European countries with over 25,000 members. Space forbids a description of the activities of these last two organisations in the detail that they well deserve, and we must pass on to a

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[1] *Op. cit.*, pp. 38-39.

[2] It may, however, easily happen that the objections to affiliation come from the workers if they consider that the journalists are so organised that they are likely to obtain all the advantages of the connection without being able to assume all the obligations of the trade union struggle. One case of this type is known where discreet preliminary negotiations met with a refusal by the trade union.

brief survey of the state of the profession in various countries, as shown by the enquiry, and of some of the problems which are at present occupying the attention of journalists.

IV

From an examination of the needs of journalists and the aim of their efforts as shown in the study, it appears that the most generally expressed aspiration, which includes all the others, is that their conditions of employment should be subject to a definite system of regulations, statutory or otherwise. There is in progress a widespread campaign to systematise the profession and standardise the conditions of employment in it. The need for stability is universally felt. The most general desire is to give the profession a definite contour, a sound internal organisation, and to replace arbitrary decisions and haphazard methods by order and system, and the rational assignment of rights and duties. As a matter of fact, journalism has never been entirely at the mercy of caprice and confusion. Like every professional body, it has always had its customs and practices, which were often tyrannical and whose power was exercised sometimes to the advantage and sometimes to the detriment of journalists. Customs have the disadvantage of seldom forming a coherent whole ; moreover, they go out of date rapidly, especially in a profession which is developing at such a headlong pace as journalism ; they then represent an outworn stage of the evolving organism and become a danger to it.

Journalists have felt the need of regulations for their profession, and their organisations have worked strenuously towards this aim. It is indeed for this purpose that the trade union mechanism mentioned above has been so patiently built up. The profession may be regulated in either of two ways — by collective agreements or by legislation. A certain number of journalists consider that the consummation of their efforts would be the enactment of special laws recognising their profession and regulating their working conditions. Others prefer the more elastic method of the collective agreement. The two systems may, however, quite well go hand in hand, and the detailed determination of actual conditions by means of collective agreements may be usefully supported by an Act laying down general principles of permanent value.

Be that as it may, in a certain number of countries, thanks to the efforts of organised journalists, the conditions of employment

are already subject to regulation either by agreements or by legislation. And it is fair to point out that the publishers have by no means always opposed the claims of their intellectual collaborators. To quote once more from the study :

> In many countries the efforts of journalists encountered a fairly sympathetic attitude on the part of the employers, and this circumstance greatly facilitated the codification of working conditions in the profession. Realising that such a codification offered a firm foundation for the future relations between the various groups of which a publishing house is composed, and that by the good will and stability which would ensue, it would assure the prosperity of the newspaper, the publishers agreed to discuss in great detail the working conditions of their editorial staffs. In some cases they consented to real sacrifices, merely making sure, by vigorous steps towards organisation on their own side, that the terms agreed upon would be universally carried out, and consequently could not disturb the free play of competition. The employers' organisation thus assisted in the work of codification, first of all by enabling the two parties to come into contact and fruitfully discuss the problems raised, and later by facilitating the adoption of reforms, the equitable execution of which by all concerned would not be open to doubt. The profession was not disorganised by any unsystematic application of the measures decided upon but was reorganised at a higher level.[1]

The publishers have shown by this attitude that they fully realise the importance of improving the position of journalists in the interests of the Press itself, and the value for its future of a system of regulations fixing fair conditions of employment. It is certain that the employers also profit by uniformity of this kind, since it provides guarantees against competition, does away with the disputes — which are often costly — provoked by the variability and uncertainty of working conditions, and allays that discontent among their collaborators which runs counter to the success of the newspaper.

Italian journalists were the first to have a national collective agreement, as far back as 1911. This agreement was inspired by such a true understanding of the needs of the profession that it was left unchanged up to 1919, and many parts of it still serve as a model for drawing up agreements in other countries.[2] Austria followed in 1918. The collective agreement for journalists in that country is one of the richest in guarantees of all kinds for intellectual

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[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 202.

[2] According to the principles laid down in the legislation on associations and the Charter of Labour of the Fascist State, the collective agreements drawn up by a recognised trade association are binding on all persons belonging to the occupation in question. The agreement for Italian journalists has therefore the force of law for all members of the profession.

workers on newspapers. Switzerland, Great Britain, Australia and Germany[1] in turn followed the same course. In the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes the conditions of employment for journalists have been regulated by legislation since 1926. Several other countries have partial agreements covering only a section of the Press. Others, again, in particular France and the Netherlands, are at present engaged in negotiations; draft agreements have been drawn up, and the adoption of the final texts now seems to be merely a question of time. It would be surprising if only two or three countries were to remain aloof from the movement which is driving the countries with a great modern Press towards this reorganisation of journalism.

A rapid survey of the chief questions dealt with by the journalists in these efforts will give an opportunity for citing some striking examples of the differences in working conditions as between two countries that may be caused by the presence or absence of a system of regulations.

V

In the conclusion of the study by the Office the problems under consideration are divided into three classes; it will be convenient to keep this classification here.

First of all, there is the question of salaries, which may form a class by itself. It is not surprising to find that this was the first question discussed by the associations of journalists and that for a long time it was the chief and sometimes the only subject which occupied their attention. The first essential is to make a living. Now it has been seen that at one moment journalists had very great difficulty in making a living, and sometimes they still have. There is no disguising the fact that the situation of journalists in this respect in certain countries is not only a profound injustice to the intellectual workers on newspapers but may also become a danger for the development of the Press in general. In many countries, as the study points out,

> salaries that were adequate before the war are so no longer, and the profession, once equipped with teams of excellent specialists, is

[1] The only agreements considered here are those covering the whole, or at least the greater part, of a country. Fully twenty years ago the Socialist Press in Germany had a collective agreement. Although it applied only to a single group of journalists, it was none the less important on account of the advantages it granted them, in which it served as a true forerunner of later agreements.

menaced, after the retirement of the older members, with dilution and a consequent qualitative impoverishment. It is obvious that young men will not be tempted to enter a profession, doubtless full of allurements, but incapable of furnishing a decent livelihood. Answer may be made that the law of supply and demand may come into play at this moment, and that as the number of recruits falls salaries will naturally rise. This process, which occurs in other professions, would be but imperfectly realised in journalism, where the working of the law is disturbed by the large numbers of people who derive advantages from practising journalism without being obliged to earn their living by it. A paper can always find means of procuring free copy, or at any rate, cheap copy, if it does not make too many difficulties about the quality. The ease with which one can "do a bit of journalism" while engaged in another vocation is a constant danger threatening the Press, and it may, in some circumstances... do the utmost harm to the profession. The newspaper is not altogether a machine; in fact the human element plays the principal part. If skilled workers are indispensable merely for the supervision of moving machinery, for the running of a paper it is, *a fortiori*, essential to have a staff whose mental qualities will make its reputation. The needs of the Press clamour louder and louder for the constitution of a corps of experienced specialists, and this can only exist by the payment of adequate salaries and by the institution of various safeguards tending, not to exclude all outside contributors, but to eliminate production of inferior quality by fixing rates of pay so high that the paper automatically rejects all unqualified amateurs.[1]

The journalists' organisations tackled this problem. They have succeeded in improving some of the most critical situations and safeguarding their gains for the future by a sliding-scale system varying with the cost of living. Comparison of the conditions in a country where the employment of journalists is subject to definite regulations, as in Austria, with those in a country like Spain, which is one of the worst off in this respect and where journalists raise bitter lamentations, will give an idea of what the organisations have secured. In the latter country at the end of 1926 journalists' salaries had risen by only 30 per cent. since 1914, while the cost-of-living index had risen from 100 to 190; in 1927 the average salary of a reporter in the capital was 175 pesetas per month, or half that of a good compositor. Austrian journalists, on the contrary, by a collective agreement have secured a minimum salary of 365 schillings[2], double rates for time worked on rest days, and a special allowance for night work. They also receive two months' salary extra, one at Christmas and the other on the occasion of their holiday, when a railway allowance is also

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 205.

[2] A good compositor was earning about 260 schillings per month at the beginning of 1928.

granted ; a quarterly rent allowance ispaid as well. Finally, an important provision of the agreement is that journalists paid by the line must receive a monthly salary at least equal to the minimum salary of the permanent editorial staff, even if the total sum actually due to them for articles supplied does not reach this minimum. This is a good example of the striking differences mentioned above which may exist in the conditions of work of journalists from one country to another.

Among the problems of journalists there is a second group springing entirely from the anxiety about security of tenure.

Unemployment ; recruiting ; the grading of newspaper workers, and the definition of their rights and duties ; the competition of amateurs ; rules for the termination of service ; the organisation of provident funds ; and the settlement of disputes : all these problems belong to the general question of security and stability, the need for which is so keenly felt in a profession in which care for the morrow still very often holds sway.

Professional journalists everywhere are in arms against amateur competition, which is perhaps more serious in the Press than in any other branch of intellectual activity. Since the profession is not protected, anyone may turn journalist and have his copy accepted at low rates or even without payment merely for the pleasure of seeing himself in print. Journalists have no intention of shutting out expert contributors who do not belong to the profession but have something to say to the public. They simply wish such collaboration to be hedged about by certain guarantees, so as not to prejudice professional journalists. Here again reference may be made to the solution given to this problem by the Austrian collective agreement, which explicitly prohibits all unpaid collaboration except in political papers, and then only on condition that the paid editorial staff of these papers do not object. Most of the agreements in the various countries fix the rate per line or per article for outside contributors and thus combat the competition of persons who might be willing to work at low rates. In Italy, where conditions are unique and have both economic and political effects, the profession is practically closed and protected against amateurs by the fact that only persons whose names are on the register kept by a committee of journalists are allowed to exercise the profession.

The most crucial question in this group is undoubtedly that of the termination of services. In the study we read :

Among the disadvantages of the profession, that which journalists perhaps fear most is insecurity. At the root of this insecurity is the ever-present possibility of dismissal. The vicissitudes which the development of a newspaper may undergo are well known. If to the surprises which the course of political events may bring are added the ups and downs of fashion, and the caprices of advertising, and then to all the outside circumstances which may lead to reduced circulation or to the extinction of a paper are added the internal events — transformation, reorganisation, disagreements, which may affect a part of the personnel — one arrives at a disquieting number of circumstances in which a journalist risks the loss of his employment, and may be obliged, often in unfavourable conditions owing to his age or to his specialised qualifications, to seek work elsewhere.[1]

Amongst all these eventualities, several of which are common to most professions, there is one which is peculiar to journalism and is inherent in the nature of journalistic work. There is a possibility, as a result of a change of policy or general outlook in a paper, of the journalist's finding himself morally compelled to resign. In journalism there are frequently such close relations between the individual and his calling, between the personality of the man and his professional output, that such cases of acute conscientious difficulty may arise at any moment. The seriousness of resignation for conscientious reasons lies in the fact that, although the journalist is in fact compelled to give up his work on the paper, in appearance he is leaving of his own accord and is therefore not eligible for the indemnity that may normally accompany dismissal. Under the usual legislation, he is even compelled to give his employer a certain amount of notice, and during this period he may be made to continue doing work which offends his conscience and compromises his honour.

As might be expected, the journalists of various countries are in very different situations as regards the termination of employment. In certain countries they have succeeded in securing a strict system of regulations, but in many others they are protected only by the provisions of general legislation, which are quite insufficient for this purpose, or by vague and antiquated customs. Along with the situation in those countries where there is rarely an indemnity for dismissal and where the period of notice is scarcely more than a few weeks and sometimes only a fortnight, reference should be made also to the countries which possess regulations under which the period of notice may be as much as twelve months and where the normal indemnity prescribed in the agreements

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 77.

may amount to several years' salary. Resignation for conscientious reasons is often provided for in special clauses which treat it as involuntary departure and consequently fix the same indemnity as for dismissal or even (an interesting provision) a higher sum; the journalist is also given the right to leave his work immediately.

Two other problems, also connected with the anxiety about security of tenure, are prominent in the minds of journalists: that of the settlement of disputes and that of provident funds.

Journalists nearly always feel the need of special machinery for the settlement of disputes. The disputes in their profession are often delicate, and they wish to have them tried not by the ordinary civil judges, who are generally ignorant of the conditions and customs of journalism, but by special courts composed of employers and employees in the profession, which would have not only greater competence but also more rapid procedure. In several countries such courts already exist, and most collective agreements provide for the institution of joint tribunals for the settlement of disputes respecting the interpretation of collective agreements.

Journalists have also made strenuous efforts in the sphere of provident funds. Like all other questions, this is in a purely embryonic stage in certain countries, but in those where journalistic organisation is most advanced a highly satisfactory level has been reached. An elaborate system of insurance has been set up against unemployment, accidents, sickness, invalidity, and old age, frequently with contributions from the employers and sometimes, as in Italy, with State subsidies or the revenue from special taxes on the general public.

There is, lastly, a third group of questions concerning working conditions in the strict sense of the term: hours of work, night work, weekly rest, and holidays.

At first sight it appears difficult in a profession like journalism to regulate such matters as hours of work or the weekly rest period. How indeed can the time a journalist devotes to his work be calculated? In intellectual creative work where is the line to be drawn between leisure moments and moments of professional activity? Is the time spent by a dramatic critic in listening to a play or by a literary critic in reading a book for review to count as working time? Even supposing that an exact definition of the journalist's work has been given, how are the periods he spends

on it to be added up, so as to reconstitute his professional day, since the work is often done in different places and at varying intervals ?

How, again, is the existence of a weekly rest period to be reconciled with the modern conception of the newspaper that appears on every day of the week ? It would indeed be very difficult for certain papers which have only the minimum necessary staff to institute a system of rotation or of an extra Sunday shift.

Yet the journalist's profession may in certain circumstances be so exhausting on account of the conditions of the work (much of it done at night), the haste demanded by the rapidity with which the newspaper has to appear, and the resulting nervous tension, that the conditions in which he works cannot be ignored without danger to his health. Persons who take no precautions age rapidly in journalism. Professional associations everywhere point out the difficult position of a journalist on the labour market after the age of 40 unless he has taken special care of his health or has a particularly strong constitution. Even casual observation suggests that statistics of sickness and mortality in journalism and their comparison with those for other professions would reveal some disquieting facts. In spite of the difficulties in the way, it is therefore absolutely necessary to establish certain standards in journalism. Sufficient holidays should in any case be given to counterbalance those disadvantages which cannot yet be entirely eliminated from the profession. This has been the aim of the journalists' organisations. In several agreements they have secured regulations on hours of work (though it is obviously impossible to do more than regulate the hours actually spent in the office or on some work which is easily checked), night work, the weekly rest, and holidays, forming a very effective system of protection. Thus, side by side with countries where there are no regulations, where the weekly rest is generally a pure fiction, where the same journalist may be employed day and night, where his holidays are often cut down to a fortnight or even less, there are others where a day and a half of rest is guaranteed each week, where day and night work are carefully distinguished and separated from each other, and where the journalist is guaranteed four to six weeks' holiday.

In order to ensure the application of the weekly rest in the Press, some countries, such as Italy[1], have gone the length of prohibiting

[1] Royal Decree of 23 June 1923.

the publication of any newspapers on Sunday afternoon or Monday morning.

VI

The few examples quoted cannot give more than a slight idea of the position of journalists in the various countries. The present article does not even set out to summarise the very large quantity of material on this subject collected by the International Labour Office. On such a complex and changing topic the data cannot, of course, be taken as final. In journalism, as we have seen, more than in any other sphere a rapid evolution is taking place. The researches of the Office will at least enable the reader to study one of the most interesting moments in the history of journalism, when, after a long period of confusion and anxious impotence, journalists have taken matters in hand and have begun the important work of reorganising their profession. The study shows the first efforts of the national organisations of journalists, those of the new international organisations, and the first results obtained, which are already remarkable and full of promise for the future. It is to be hoped that the work done by the Office may prove useful to journalists in their effort to establish suitable regulations for the conditions of employment in their profession, and that it may thus achieve the purpose aimed at by the International Association of Journalists accredited to the League of Nations when it suggested this enquiry into the conditions of work and life of journalists.

Seasonal Unemployment in the Building Industry in Certain European Countries : I

by

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In response to a special request by the International Labour Conference, the Office has been carrying out an investigation into the problem of seasonal unemployment. Some of the results have already been described in the Review *in two articles, one dealing with the problem on the labour market as a whole*[1], *the other with the clothing industries.*[2] *The present study by Professor Hersch, dealing with the building industry, forms part of this series of articles. It falls into two main parts. The first, given below, contains an analysis of the extremely complex problem studied, followed by a critical account of the methods of research used. The second part, which will also be published in the* Review, *will consist of a series of studies of the problem country by country, based on the various national statistics.*

It is proposed to follow this analysis of the facts, showing the ways in which seasonal unemployment manifests itself, by a further article dealing with possible remedies for the evil.

THE PROBLEM AND THE METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

1. Seasonal fluctuations in the activity and the unemployment of a given economic group may be caused by two kinds of factor, one connected with consumption, the other with production. In the first case, it is the seasonal character of the demand which leads to these fluctuations, as the requirements of the population vary from one season to another. The majority of the clothing industries (as, for example, the straw hat, fur, and knitted goods industries), the gas and electric light industries, and others are subject

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[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVII, No 3, March 1928 : " Seasonal Fluctuations in Unemployment ".

[2] *Idem*, Vol. XVIII, Nos. 1 and 2, July and August 1928 : " Seasonal Unemployment in the Clothing Industries ".

to alternating seasonal periods of activity and unemployment which are due mainly to seasonal variations in the demand. In the second case, the fluctuations do not depend on the demand but result directly from the fact that certain seasons favour or hinder production. Such is the case in agriculture and allied industries, and also, for example, in inland and maritime navigation where ice prevents work in winter.

In the building industry, both types of factor come into play simultaneously. It is obvious that rain, fog, snow, frost, and short days interfere with production. On the other hand, demand itself varies from season to season; certain repairs are generally carried out during holidays and at the time when leases fall in, while orders for the installation and repair of heating apparatus are naturally more numerous in autumn than in spring, and so on.

Certain writers[1] divide the factors influencing seasonal fluctuations into two groups, natural and social; the first are regarded as seasonal factors properly speaking, while the others, such as customs and habits, are only quasi-seasonal. It is however difficult here to draw a hard and fast line between the natural and the social groups, and it is not certain that the quasi-seasonal fluctuations of a social character are not also connected, at least indirectly or by tradition, with the natural succession of the seasons.

The two classifications do not coincide, for both production and consumption are affected at one and the same time by both natural and social factors. Fluctuations in production are directly influenced by atmospheric conditions and methods of construction, while the demand for repairs varies, as has been pointed out, with the thermometer and the holidays. Nor can it be claimed in a general way that obstacles of a natural character are more difficult to overcome than those of a social character; the use of suitable technical methods will often enable them to be overcome as easily as certain social difficulties. So far at any rate as the attempt to remedy unemployment is concerned, the first method of classification would appear to be the more useful.

2. Be that as it may, the fact remains that the seasonal fluctuations in activity and unemployment in the building industry depend simultaneously on seasonal fluctuations in demand and the variable effects of the seasons on production, that is to say, on both natural and social influences. The result is not only to make the

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[1] Cf. in particular N. B. Dearle: *Problems of Unemployment in the London Building Trades*, pp. 66 *et seq.* London, 1908.

building industry liable to wide fluctuations from one season to another, but also to create within the industry a great variety in the intensity and character of the seasonal fluctuations. For the effect of the various factors varies in the different branches and occupations of the building industry, according as the work is done outside or indoors, according to the methods of construction and the size of the undertaking, according as the work is on new buildings or repairs, on private dwellings, industrial or commercial premises, or public buildings, according to the site, to whether the work is being done in large or small towns, to local customs, etc. According to all these circumstances, the various factors may act in the same sense and increase their effect, or on the contrary they may act in opposite senses and neutralise each other. In this way not only the magnitude of seasonal variations but also the dates of their maxima and minima must and do actually vary from one branch or occupation to another and from place to place.[1]

For example, orders for repairs to school buildings, public libraries, museums, etc., will mainly be given during holiday periods, that is to say, in the height of the summer, this fact contributing to increase building activity at a moment when operations are particularly favoured by dry weather and long days. Similarly, orders for repairs to commercial premises, where speed of execution, imposed by the desire to hinder business as little as possible, is of prime importance, will in large towns obviously be chiefly given in the summer. Again, the small contractor, with nothing but working capital and not much of that, will be anxious to see his capital turned over as quickly as possible, and will naturally try to concentrate his operations in that part of the year when protection against winter weather is unnecessary, when artificial light is not required, etc.

On the other hand, it is a vital necessity for large-scale undertakings with considerable fixed capital not to be idle months on end, and they will naturally try to continue operations even in winter, thus counterbalancing to a certain extent the adverse effect of the natural factors of that season. In spas and tourist centres, repairs and a great part of new building will be carried out by preference before and after the " season ", so that here business will be briskest at a time when it is elsewhere generally slack, and the fine weather season will be accompanied by increased unemploy-

[1] *Ibid.* Cf. also Augustus WEBB : " The Building Trade ", in *Seasonal Trades* (edited by Sydney WEBB ; London, 1912), p. 332 et passim.

ment. Generally speaking, workmen employed in installing and repairing heating and lighting apparatus are busiest when building operations are completed, sometimes even in mid-winter, or at a time when the other branches of the building industry are most idle ; and so on.

3. In studying the question before us, the distinction between the industry and the occupation is of great importance. An industry is a group of undertakings, and is in consequence a matter of collective organisation ; an occupation is purely a matter for an individual and is independent of the economic branch in which it is exercised. The activity (or unemployment) of a given building undertaking, or group of undertakings, is therefore not synonymous with the activity (or unemployment) of persons whose occupations are used in the building industry, although in most cases the two notions coincide. It is quite easy to imagine a large building undertaking which, in order to avoid seasonal unemployment, concentrates its indoor work on the winter months and utilises the summer months almost exclusively for its outdoor work. Such a concern might dismiss a large number of its masons, labourers, and bricklayers in the winter, and an equally large number of its carpenters, plumbers, electricians, and painters in the summer. The undertaking would thus be working continuously, and the general index of employment might be almost constant, yet the workers in nearly all the occupations concerned in the undertaking would suffer from seasonal unemployment. On the other hand, it is also possible for a large number of building undertakings to be held up by bad weather, but for the workers to find employment in their own occupation in other industries, such as shipbuilding, engineering, the furniture trade, etc. In this instance, the building industry undergoes a serious seasonal decline without the workers in the various occupations employed in the building industry having to suffer from analogous seasonal unemployment.

The choice of the problem to be studied — the seasonal fluctuations in the activity of the undertakings or those in the unemployment of the workers — will determine whether the industry or the occupation is to be taken as a basis. For the purposes of the present article it is the occupation that must be primarily considered ; in any case, it must not be confused with the industry. However, existing unemployment statistics are still far from drawing a clear distinction between the industry and the occupation. Yet it seems reasonable to admit that in occupations which depend, so to speak, almost exclusively on the building industry seasonal fluctuations

will be greater than in those occupations which are also applicable to other industries where the workers can find supplementary employment.

4. Building occupations and the building industry, however, are far from being clearly defined, and in the statistics of the various countries very different limits are assigned to them. Should the definitions be confined to activities concerned solely with the building of houses ? May they also include the construction of roads, canals, and tunnels, and perhaps even shipbuilding ? Should the production of raw materials, especially minerals used mainly by the building industry, such as stone, lime, cement, glass, etc., be included, as is done in the Italian statistics ?

Such an extension of the scope of the building industry seems to the present writer an encroachment on the domain of other industries. And since for the building industry even in the strictest sense, the periods of maximum and minimum seasonal unemployment are not the same for the various occupations, the introduction of yet other industries and occupations, each with its own seasonal fluctuations, is likely to lead to thorough confusion.

The present article will therefore deal, so far as statistics allow the distinction, with the construction, repair, and decoration of houses and other buildings, to the exclusion of all other kinds of construction.

5. The statistical study of unemployment is as a rule impeded by a large number of difficulties to which attention has frequently been drawn, and which it is needless to dwell on here. Furthermore, it is not altogether simple to fix with any degree of accuracy that part of the fluctuations in social phenomena which is to be attributed to seasonal influences ; the general tendency of such phenomena to increase or to diminish, the alternate rise and fall due to economic cycles, and exceptional events such as a war, a large trade dispute, etc., constantly obscure to some extent the fluctuations arising from the sequence of the seasons. There are other special difficulties in the way of determining the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment, and more especially in the building industry.

In the first place it may be noted that the statistics give an idea of the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment which is steadily below the actual facts. To see this, let us suppose that there are two classes of workers, masons and plumbers for example, one of which (the masons) has its maximum of unemployment in January and its minimum in July, and the other (the plumbers), on the contrary, its minimum of unemployment in January and its maxi-

mum in July. To simplify matters still further, let us suppose that the two classes are numerically equal, and that both have a maximum of 10 per cent. and a minimum of 4 per cent. unemployed. It will follow that if in the statistics the two classes are put under the same heading (e.g. building), unemployment among these workers will be ½ (10 + 4) or 7 per cent. in both January and July, which means that no difference will be seen between the various seasons, and seasonal fluctuations will appear to be non-existent. This result is solely due to the fact that the large seasonal fluctuations which we have supposed are in opposite directions in the two occupations considered.

Naturally, such diametrically opposite directions are somewhat rare in reality. But any divergence of direction in the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment among the different classes of workers, any lack of coincidence of the periods of maximum or minimum unemployment, must of necessity reduce the average maximum for the workers as a whole and increase the average minimum. For to the maximum unemployment for one class of workers is always added an amount of unemployment which is lower than the maximum for certain other classes ; similarly, to the minimum unemployment for one class is added an amount which is higher than the minimum for certain other classes. Thus in statistics covering different classes of workers at once, it follows from the mere fact of the divergence between the seasonal fluctuations of their unemployment that the difference between the maximum and minimum for the year gives an inadequate idea of the actual range and, in general, of the intensity of the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment in each of the classes included under the one heading. And the greater the divergence between the seasonal fluctuations for these classes, the more it is minimised in the general picture of the fluctuations given by the unemployment statistics.

Now, these fluctuations are in fact very divergent, and they vary with climate, locality, industry, and occupation. Within a single industry the busy and slack seasons vary widely according as the industry is working to supply local orders or for a distant market. They do not coincide for skilled workers and unskilled workers in the same industrial group. And as existing statistics are never detailed enough to allow for these various classes of workers, it follows that they always under-estimate the part of unemployment which is due to seasonal influences. In other words, the seasonal part of unemployment is much more important than it appears from the statistics.

The foregoing remarks naturally apply with most force to statistics which merely show the proportion of unemployed in relation to the whole of the workers of a country without making any distinction even between the main industries and services. They also apply to statistics which, while distinguishing the more important branches of industry, such as building, do not distinguish between the principal occupations, or between the large towns and the rest of the country.

These remarks become even more pertinent if the scope of the industry is extended, and if it is taken to include, as is done in certain countries, the production of certain raw materials used by the industry considered ; for it is obvious that seasonal fluctuations in the production of raw materials must, as a rule, precede fluctuations in the activity of the industry properly speaking (construction and repair of buildings) and that their respective minima and maxima can hardly ever coincide. Lastly, the remarks retain some of their value even if the statistics do distinguish between the various large occupational groups, but without going into sufficient detail.

It may therefore be said that the amount of unemployment due to seasonal influences is usually greater for the different districts of a given country than as shown in the general statistics for the whole of the country, that it is usually greater for the various occupations belonging to a given industry than appears from the general average for that industry, and that this difference is greater in proportion as the work is more specialised and the statistics less detailed.

So far as possible, therefore, we shall not merely examine the building industry as a whole, but we shall try to study the problem rather more closely, and making due allowance for the fact that the seasonal part of unemployment is in reality greater than is shown by the statistics used.

6. A further difficulty in the study of the question is to be found in the character of the period available for study. Only in rare cases do statistics of unemployment in the building industry go further back than the last few years before the war. It is therefore necessary to study a period characterised by exceptionally profound and numerous economic convulsions which naturally often disturbed the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment. First of all came the sudden stoppage in the summer of 1914 when war broke out ; then followed the extraordinary boom in employment (and a corresponding fall in unemployment) of 1915-1918 ; then came

a new increase in unemployment at the beginning of 1919 during the demobilisation period, then a further boom, followed by a new and immense increase in unemployment which began in the autumn of 1920 as the result of the economic depression which affected almost the whole world at that period; inflation and deflation policies then provoked further disturbances in a number of countries and new fluctuations of unemployment, which sometimes increased the seasonal fluctuations and sometimes counteracted them. The great industrial disputes in Great Britain and the measures taken in Germany for industrial rationalisation have had similar effects on unemployment. Other factors that might be mentioned are the changes during the period to be studied in the body of workers covered by the unemployment statistics in consequence of changes in trade union organisation, modifications of legislation on unemployment insurance, the regulation of building activity during the war in certain countries, and so on.

7. It might be asked whether it is really possible to determine the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment in the presence of such a number of abnormal influences. In the building industry, however, these fluctuations are so great that in spite of so many non-seasonal occurrences they still stand out in bold relief. This will be seen in Figure 1 (page 47), which shows, for the last five years, the level of unemployment in the building industry at the end of each month in Great Britain, Denmark, the Netherlands, Germany and Italy, i.e. all the various countries whose statistics will be examined in the present article.[1]

The heights of these curves are not comparable as they stand, for the facts they illustrate are not the same for the various countries. In the first place, as has already been pointed out, the branch of industry covered is not exactly the same in all cases. For Great Britain, for example, it is the building industry in the strict sense of the term which is considered, excluding the construction of works (roads, etc.). For Italy, on the contrary, the figures cover not only the construction of roads but also the production of raw materials. The German figures refer to the members of the Federation of Building Operatives (*Bauarbeiter-Verband*), which

[1] The figures on which the curves are based and those used for making all the calculations in this article are taken from the following sources: Great Britain: *The Ministry of Labour Gazette*; Denmark: the Danish Statistical Year-Book; Netherlands: *Maandschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek*; Germany: *Reichsarbeitsblatt*; Italy: *La disoccupazione e l'assicurazione contro la disoccupazione in Italia.*

does not even include all the organised workers in the building trade, an important number of whom belong to other unions; house painters, for example, did not belong to the Federation during the

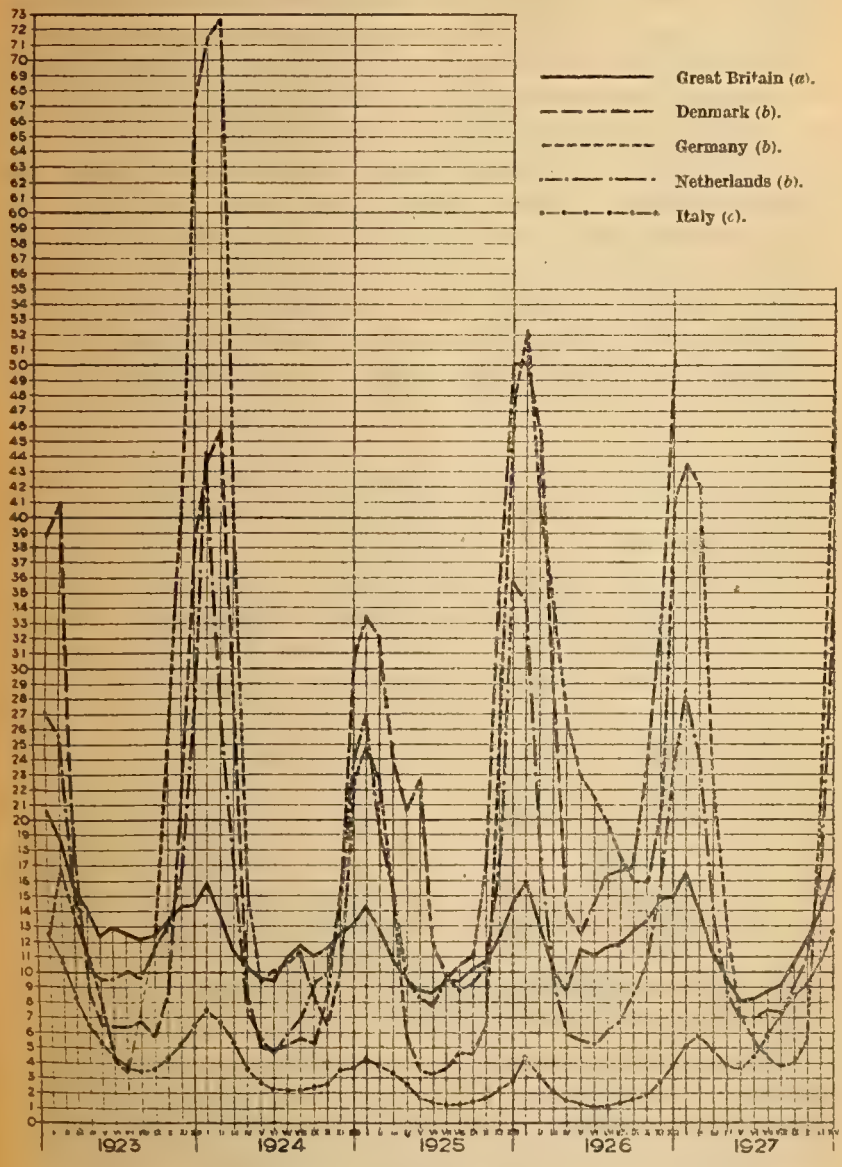

FIGURE 1. UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY IN CERTAIN COUNTRIES, 1923-1927.

(a) Unemployed per 100 insured workers.
(b) Unemployed per 100 trade unionists.
(c) Absolute figures, in tens of thousands.

period considered. In certain cases (Great Britain and Italy) the figures refer to workers compulsorily insured against unemployment, while in others (Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands) they refer to workers voluntarily insured against unemployment by their trade unions. Sometimes (Great Britain) all unemployment, whether total or partial, is considered, sometimes only total employment, and so on. The level of the unemployment curve for Italy must not in any case be compared with that of the other curves, as for all other countries the percentage of unemployment among the building operatives is taken, while for Italy (where this percentage is not calculated) the curve shows the variations in the absolute number of unemployed (in tens of thousands). The relation between the scale of the Italian curve and that of the other curves of the diagram is therefore purely arbitrary; if instead of tens of thousands we had taken thousands, for example, all the points of the Italian curve would have been ten times higher on the diagram than they are.

It is therefore the more interesting to note that, whatever definition is taken for the building industry and whatever classes of workers in this industry are considered, unemployment shows very wide seasonal fluctuations in all the countries under discussion.

In fact, as the above diagram shows, the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry follow very regular yearly cycles, so that a given month always brings with it very similar fluctuations in unemployment. For each country there are certain months when unemployment is regularly high and others when it is regularly low. And this is in spite of the unsettled character of the period considered and the fact that the figures used do not distinguish between the various occupations and districts, but are averages (in Italy totals) of the unemployment in the whole of the occupations belonging to the building industry and in all parts of each country considered.

We observe further that the curves for the various countries are remarkably parallel in their monthly fluctuations; that is to say, that it is generally the same months which show an increase or decrease of unemployment in every country. Almost everywhere the maximum is reached in January, the month of December (before the peak) and the month of February (after the peak) following closely behind. Unemployment then declines rapidly in March and April and thenceforward shows very little variation until September, after which the increase is rapid from November onwards.

8. Although the annual rhythm of the monthly fluctuations

of unemployment in the building industry can easily be determined and might even have been predicted on *a priori* grounds, the problem becomes much more complex when it is desired to find the measure of the seasonal fluctuations and so determine, even if only approximately, the part of the total amount of unemployment which is due to seasonal influences. The word " approximately " is used advisedly, for after what has been said above it is obvious that so long as more normal periods are not available as a basis for observations and so long as conclusions have to be drawn from observations made during a period unsettled by so many exceptional occurrences, it will be impossible, in measuring seasonal fluctuations of unemployment, to expect any result but an approximation, and a very rough one at that.

In these circumstances it would appear necessary to give up any idea of attempting to fix and to eliminate what is known as the " trend ", that is to say, the part of the unemployment variations attributable to the general tendency of the phenomena to rise or to fall. In view of the extremely unsettled character of the period surveyed, it would indeed appear almost impossible, except for certain rare countries, to fix at the present time, with any degree of certitude, the trend of unemployment in the building industry. If the investigations are made to cover one or several years more or less than the period actually considered, the result obtained for the trend will vary in considerable proportions : which seems to show that, so far as concerns the variations of unemployment in Europe, and in particular in the building industry, any calculation of the trend made in present circumstances must be extremely problematical.

No attempt is consequently made in this article to make the complicated calculations required to fix or to eliminate the trend of unemployment.

9. There still remains, however, the question of separating, in the monthly variations of unemployment, the fluctuations due to seasonal influences from those caused by economic cycles and by the various exceptional occurrences of the period surveyed. Is it sufficient, in order to eliminate these and thus isolate the seasonal fluctuations, to take the arithmetic mean of the number (absolute or relative) of unemployed persons in each successive month over the whole period covered ? This method cannot be admitted, for many reasons which have already been sufficiently explained in statistical literature, and which appear quite decisive so far as the present study is concerned. In the first place, the

arithmetic mean eliminates only accidental circumstances influencing both the rise and fall, and only then when the number of observations is large. In the present case, however, the exceptional occurrences since the outbreak of the war, and especially since the armistice, have resulted rather in increasing than lessening unemployment. Again, the available statistics generally cover a period of only 10-15 years, and it is therefore obvious that there can be only 10-15 observations for each month, a number which can in no way be considered large. For these two reasons alone the arithmetic monthly mean would appear to be a defective method.

When considering unemployment in the building industry, where fluctuations are, as has been seen, extremely great, there is also another argument against the use of the arithmetic mean, which appears to be conclusive. For example, a business depression in winter, when as a rule a large part of the building operatives are idle, cannot very well lead to a great increase in unemployment (in any case not relatively), while, on the other hand, its effects are much more far-reaching in summer, when unemployment is at a minimum ; in other words, by increasing summer unemployment generally more than winter unemployment, business depressions tend to lessen the magnitude of the seasonal fluctuations. A period of exceptional prosperity can have but little effect on unemployment in summer when this is already normally at its minimum, although it may greatly reduce winter unemployment, which is generally at a very high level ; thus exceptional prosperity also lessens the magnitude of the seasonal fluctuations by reducing the yearly maximum level much more than the minimum. It thus becomes evident that the effects of the variations of economic cycles and of exceptional occurrences tend to lessen rather than to increase the maxima of unemployment for the years surveyed, and to raise rather than to reduce the minima. This means that the method of arithmetic monthly averages does not sufficiently eliminate the effects of non-seasonal influences and that it gives an idea of the magnitude of the fluctuations caused by seasonal influences which is inferior to actual fact.

This conclusion applies equally to cases where the non-seasonal influences contribute to increase unemployment as to those where they tend to lessen it. Since 1914, however, these influences have tended rather to increase unemployment. It follows therefore that while the use of the method of the arithmetic mean generally raises the unemployment figures for the maximum month, it increases the figures for the minimum month to a far greater

extent. The seasonal levels for the maximum and minimum periods are thus more or less displaced and the real magnitude of the seasonal fluctuations is perceptibly reduced.

Naturally, the drawbacks to the method of the arithmetic mean vary with the extent of the tendency shown by the non-seasonal influences to react in one direction (towards an increase or towards a decrease of unemployment) rather than in another. For the reasons set out above, these drawbacks also vary with the intensity of the non-seasonal influences. They also vary with the intensity of the seasonal fluctuations themselves; the higher the seasonal maximum and the lower the minimum, the greater is the risk that the use of arithmetic means will, as a result of non-seasonal influences, lessen the real magnitude of the seasonal fluctuations (and their intensity in general).

For a period which dates back roughly to the outbreak of the war, and which is full of exceptional events, tending to increase rather than to lessen unemployment, and for the building industry which, as has been seen, is subject to great seasonal fluctuations, the method of arithmetic means of the figures for each month, taken throughout the whole period surveyed, seems therefore to be particularly inadequate.[1]

[1] Without quoting the long lists of unemployment statistics compiled at monthly intervals, it is naturally impossible to show in concrete form how far the arithmetic means differ from reality. In order, however, to give the reader some idea of this, the following examples are taken.

In Great Britain during the period 1913-1927 the average amount of unemployment among journeymen painters was 18.9 per cent. in January (maximum month), and 4 per cent. in May (minimum month); but during the 15 years surveyed, the level of unemployment in January was in reality nine times above this "average" and only six times below it; inversely, unemployment in May was in reality nine times below 4 per cent. and only six times above that figure. It must therefore be admitted that the unemployment figure for January (18.9 per cent.) is too low, and that the May figure (4 per cent.) is too high, which is equivalent to saying that the true magnitude of the seasonal fluctuations is considerably reduced when the method of calculating by the arithmetic mean is employed.

In Germany monthly averages calculated for the period 1916-1927 show that for these 12 years unemployment among building workers was at its maximum (22.4 per cent.) in January and at its minimum (4.5 per cent.) in June. During these 12 years, however, the figure of 22.4 per cent. was exceeded only four times in January and on eight occasions was not reached, while the figure of 4.5 per cent. in June was only exceeded three times, and unemployment was nine times at a lower level than this figure.

In Denmark the monthly averages for unemployment during the 18-year period 1910-1927 give 39.8 per cent. in January (maximum) and 7.2 per cent. in July (minimum), but in reality, although the average for January (39.8 per cent.) was exceeded eight times during the period, it was not reached on nine occasions, while the July average (7.2 per cent.) was only exceeded five times and was not reached on eleven occasions.

The method of monthly arithmetic means is thus shown to result in lessening the real magnitude of the seasonal fluctuations, chiefly by increasing out of proportion the unemployment figure for the month when unemployment is normally at its lowest ebb.

10. It would therefore appear that a more accurate idea of the normal level of unemployment in each month of the year will be obtained by leaving out the periods unsettled by some exceptional event, and by taking for each month the average of the figures observed during the rest of the time.

But the action of these events is generally far from coinciding with the calendar years. Are we therefore to exclude whole years in which some exceptional event, increasing or reducing unemployment, happens or leaves its effects ? But what then would be left as " normal " years ? And if a choice is made excluding certain years as obviously exceptional and keeping others which are more or less doubtful, is there not some risk that arbitrary decisions will influence the results ? This danger becomes even more imminent if instead of excluding whole years we leave out only the months during which the effects of some exceptional event are felt. For, before the normal level of unemployment for each month has been determined, it is often impossible, in view of the magnitude of the normal fluctuations from month to month, to say in what month the effect of a given exceptional event began to be felt, and more especially in what month it ceased.

11. It is for these reasons that the method of extended medians[1], frequently used nowadays in the study of seasonal fluctuations and economic phenomena, seems particularly suitable here. When the statistics include an odd number of years and there are consequently an odd number of observations for each month, the arithmetic mean of the five central figures for the month in question will be taken as the normal index of unemployment for that month ; when the number of years is even, the arithmetic mean of the four central figures will be taken. In this way the number of figures omitted above and below the terms considered is in each case the same.

By this method, large fluctuations caused by non-seasonal circumstances will be automatically eliminated, since for each month only the four or five figures farthest from both extremes during the period surveyed will be taken. If this system of elimination is adopted, there will no longer be any arbitrary element in the choice of the years and months to be rejected as " abnormal ", as for each month the extreme figures, high and low, are dropped

[1] The median of a series of numbers is the term which is situated exactly in the middle of the series when the numbers are arranged in order of magnitude. The extended median is the arithmetic mean of several terms situated in the centre of a series thus arranged.

automatically by the rule, fixed in advance, of retaining only the four or five central numbers. Thus fluctuations due to favourable or unfavourable economic conditions, or to some exceptional event of another order such as a war, a strike, etc., will have practically no influence on the normal unemployment figure for each month as determined by the method of extended medians. We cannot say more than " practically ", for it is obvious that we are still in the realm of approximation, if only on account of the arbitrary choice of the number of median terms (four or five) to be considered each month. This method, however, seems to be much nearer the truth than that of taking the general arithmetic means to represent what is normal for the season, since these include fluctuations due both to seasonal and to non-seasonal circumstances.[1]

12. When the normal typical figure of unemployment for each month (for a given country and period and a given class of workers) has been determined by means of the extended medians, the next question is to compare these figures for the different months so as to ascertain the extent of the fluctuations from month to month.

This comparison can be done in different ways, each of which gives a different aspect of the facts ; only what seem to be the most instructive methods will be mentioned here. It may however be noted that the simple series of the twelve figures showing the normal unemployment for each month of the year (or, better still, the graphical representation of this series) itself gives a general view of the seasonal fluctuations of the phenomenon ; it shows the *absolute* difference between the unemployment figures for the various months. The series can be shown graphically in various ways, the most useful by means of an ordinary curve, using rectilinear co-ordinates, or by using polar co-ordinates.[2] But the series of unemployment

[1] Having given up the idea of attempting to eliminate the trend, we shall not discuss the much more complicated method of successive quotients or " linked relatives ", the main justification of which is its use to eliminate the trend.

[2] The polar curve for a series of twelve numbers is the line joining the ends of twelve vectors each 30° apart, their lengths being proportional to the twelve numbers (see further on, under "Denmark"). These curves, which are hardly ever used nowadays, and are considered valueless by some writers, seem however to give a very clear picture of seasonal fluctuations (which are in general strictly periodical). They also seem capable of suggesting new methods for analysing and measuring the seasonal character of the phenomena, methods which would be based on the angular properties of the curve and on a comparison of the area bounded by it with that of the circle (or, more accurately, the regular dodecagon) which in this method expresses the absence of all seasonal fluctuations. In any case, in the system of polar co-ordinates the ratio of the scales of the abscissae and ordinates is determined by the number of terms of the periodic series : it is therefore not dependent on the arbitrary choice of the draughtsman, as in the case for curves with rectangular co-ordinates.

figures for each of the twelve months does not show the *relative* importance of these fluctuations. In order to show for each class of workers the importance of the seasonal fluctuations in relation to the average annual unemployment for that class, we shall also calculate what are called the monthly unemployment indexes, which express the typical unemployment figures for each month as a percentage (or fraction) of the average of the twelve figures for the year. These monthly unemployment indexes can also be shown graphically, either by an ordinary or by a polar curve.

13. The two different series of twelve monthly figures, and still more clearly the curves representing them, show the months when unemployment is high or low for a given class of workers; in particular, they show at what period of the year unemployment is highest and when it is lowest. According as the series (or the curves) have one or two maxima (or peaks), we see whether the slack season in the branch considered is a yearly or a half-yearly occurrence; they can also be used for comparing the slack seasons in the different branches or occupations and to determine whether they are simultaneous or not. If in these branches or occupations unemployment rises and falls in the same months, the series and their curves will often also make it possible to see in what branches the seasonal fluctuations are greatest or smallest. This, however, is not always shown directly by the given curves and series. In most cases when the rise or fall is higher in certain months and lower in others for one branch than for another, the series and their curves do not directly indicate in what branches the seasonal fluctuations are greater; and this is still less evident when the periods of rise and fall do not coincide for the classes of workers considered. And even when a mere glance at the curves shows in what class the fluctuations are greater, it never shows to what extent they are so.

14. In order to compare the seasonal fluctuations observed in the different branches, we are therefore obliged to use synthetic expressions, each of which expresses a certain aspect of the series of seasonal fluctuations in a single figure. Of these synthetic expressions the two following are the most instructive:

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[1] The process of curve fitting by means of the sine curve may at first sight seem specially suitable for summarising seasonal variations. In reality, however, as the sine curve is symmetrical, undulatory, and without sudden changes of form, it would conceal rather than reveal the varied characteristics of the real seasonal fluctuations of unemployment in the various occupations. In the rare cases where he real fluctuations follow much the same course as the sine curve, this method f representing them is undoubtedly of interest.

(*a*) The *average* monthly fluctuation. Different averages may be used here. The most simple would be the arithmetic mean deviation, which is found by adding the deviations (positive and negative) between each of the twelve terms of the series and their arithmetic mean and dividing this sum by 12 ; we thus get the mean monthly deviation for each series, and consequently for each branch considered. A comparison of these average monthly deviations or variations shows in what branches the fluctuations are greatest or smallest and to what extent some are greater than others. Another kind of average may also be used. It is now generally agreed to take as a measure of variation the standard deviation, which is the square root of the arithmetic mean of the squares of the deviations. The standard deviation will therefore be used in the present article for the study of the seasonal variations in unemployment.

If x denotes the deviation between each of the twelve terms of the series of monthly fluctuations and the arithmetic mean of this series, then the standard deviation σ is given by the formula :

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma\, x^2}{12}}$$

i.e. the square root of the sum of the squares of the deviations divided by 12.

(*b*) The *range* of the fluctuations, or the sum of the absolute values of the greatest positive monthly deviation and the greatest monthly negative deviation from the annual average. This is also found simply by taking the difference between the maximum and the minimum of the series of the twelve monthly terms.

If the range of the fluctuations is denoted by α, the maximum term of the series by *max*, the minimum term by *min*, the deviation between the maximum and the average by x_1, and the deviation between the average and the minimum by x'_1, we have :

$$\alpha = max - min = x_1 - {}'' x_1'.$$

The standard deviation and the range of the fluctuations are complementary, each expressing a different aspect of the series considered. The first shows how far the terms of the series vary as a whole or on an average ; the second shows the limits between which the terms of the series vary. Neither of the two expressions is sufficient in itself to give an idea of the general character of a series when the fluctuations are produced not by pure chance but by the effect of a systematic cause such as the sequence of

seasons. In fact, for a branch where unemployment is very intense during a month or two, the same standard deviation may be obtained as for some other branch where unemployment is much less intense but extends over a larger part of the year; nevertheless, the character of the seasonal fluctuations is not the same in the two cases. Here it is the range of the fluctuations that will show the difference between the two series. On the other hand, the same range of fluctuations may be observed in one branch where the periods of high unemployment and of intense activity are long, and in another where they are short, which is obviously still less the same thing. Here it is the standard deviation that will show the difference between the two series.

15. Just as light can be thrown on the monthly figures of unemployment by index numbers showing the relation of each monthly figure to the annual average figure, so here, and for similar reasons, it may be useful to express the relation of the standard deviation to the annual average of unemployment for the class of workers considered, which we shall call *av*. We thus get the formula $\frac{\sigma}{av}$.

The range of the fluctuations α can similarly be compared to certain other indexes, as for example :

(1) *the annual average of unemployment*, giving the ratio $\frac{\alpha}{av}$;

(2) *the unemployment figure of the minimum month*, i.e. the balance of unemployment independent of all seasonal influences, giving the ratio $\frac{\alpha}{min}$;

(3) *twice*[1] *the standard deviation*, giving the ratio $\frac{\alpha}{2\sigma}$.

16. We can also compare the standard deviation σ with the mean deviation d. The ratio $\frac{\sigma}{d}$ will give, as we shall show, an index of the distribution of the seasonal fluctuations over the various months of the year, or, in other words, of what we may call the " concentration " of the seasonal fluctuations.

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[1] The range of the fluctuations α being the sum of the two extreme variations, it is logical to compare it with twice the standard deviation, 2σ, rather than with σ

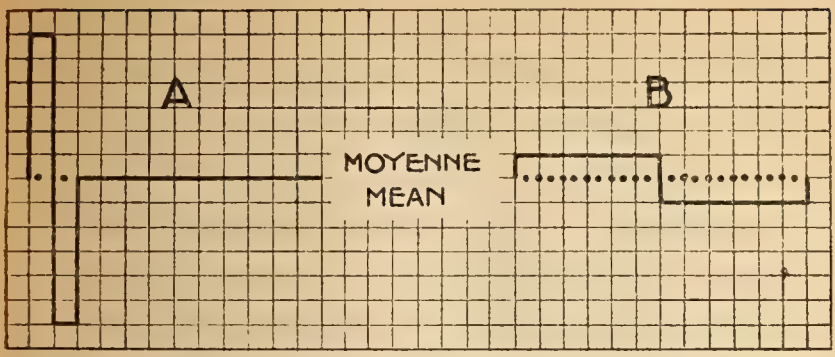

FIGURE 2. EXAMPLES OF FLUCTUATIONS WITH MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM CONCENTRATION.

Curve A in Figure 2 shows very concentrated fluctuations: it even shows the maximum concentration that it is possible to imagine for a series of twelve (monthly) terms, since the only two fluctuations, necessarily symmetrical above and below the average, are each concentrated in a single term of the series, i.e. in the present case in one only of the twelve months of the year. Curve B, on the other hand, although the total of its deviations (and the mean deviation) is equal to that for curve A, shows fluctuations with the smallest possible amount of concentration, or we may even say no concentration at all, since the twelve terms of the series, i.e. the twelve months of the year, show exactly the same deviation from the average, either above or below.

Now it may be shown mathematically that although in the two cases (A and B) the sum of the deviations and therefore the mean deviation d are the same, this does not hold for σ. In fact, σ will be a minimum in B (where the concentration of the fluctuations is zero, all the deviations being equal), and, for the same sum of the deviations, a maximum in A (where the concentration is maximum), and gradually increases (always assuming that the sum of the deviations and the mean deviation remain unchanged) from the case where all the deviations are equal (B) to that in which the sum is concentrated in a single positive and a single negative deviation (A), i.e., according to our terminology, from the case of zero concentration to that of maximum concentration.[1] The ratio $\frac{\sigma}{d}$ therefore varies in the same direction as the concentration of the fluctuations and reaches its extreme limits at the same time.

[1] The proof of these propositions is given in another study by the same author entitled " Periodic Variations and their Measurement ".

Further, it may be proved mathematically that the minimum value of the index $\frac{\sigma}{d}$ (as in curve B) is 1, and that its maximum value (as in curve A) is 2.45 for a series of twelve months.[1] The index $\frac{\sigma}{d}$ is therefore made up of two components, one of which, equal to 1, is left even in the case of zero concentration and is therefore independent of the concentration, and the other of which, $\frac{\sigma}{d} - 1$, varies with the concentration of the fluctuations, is 0 when the concentration is zero, and reaches its maximum of 2.45 – 1, or 1.45, when the concentration is a maximum.

If for any series of monthly variations we take the ratio of $\frac{\sigma}{d} - 1$ to 1.45, we get the ratio of the degree of concentration of this series to the maximum concentration. This gives an index β of the degree of concentration of the fluctuations, which is given by the formula $\beta = \frac{\frac{\sigma}{d} - 1}{1.45} = 0.69 \left(\frac{\sigma}{d} - 1\right)$.

This index is 0 when the concentration is zero, $\frac{\sigma}{d} - 1$ then being 0; it is 1 when the concentration is maximum, $\frac{\sigma}{d} - 1$ then being equal to 1.45. All possible degrees of concentration of the fluctuations can therefore be expressed by a positive fraction lying between 0 and 1. β thus gives a true index of the degree of concentration of series with twelve monthly variations.

Instead of the degree of concentration, we can also try to measure the *degree of prolongation* of the seasonal fluctuations, using for this purpose the expression $\frac{d}{\sigma}$ (the reciprocal of $\frac{\sigma}{d}$). In series with twelve terms, $\frac{d}{\sigma}$ has 1 for its upper limit and $\sqrt{\frac{1}{6}}$ (= 0.408) for its lower limit; it increases as the series passes from variations with maximum concentration or minimum prolon-

[1] In the study mentioned in the preceding note it is shown that in any finite series whose terms are not all identical the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean deviation, $\frac{\sigma}{d}$, has a minimum value 1 and a maximum value $\frac{n}{2}$, n being the number of terms of the series. In the present case, n is 12 (the number of months in the year) and the maximum value of $\frac{\sigma}{d}$ is therefore $\sqrt{6} = 2.45$.

gation (type A) to variations with minimum concentration or maximum prolongation (type B). Following the same argument as for the index of concentration β, we reach an index γ of the *degree of prolongation* of the seasonal fluctuations, which is also expressed by a positive fraction lying between 0 and 1, and, for series with twelve terms, is given by the following formula:

$$\gamma = 0.69 \left(\frac{d}{\sigma} - 0.408\right).$$

In the rest of this study these various indexes will be applied to the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment in the the building industry.

(To be continued.)

Social Legislation in China under the Nationalist Government

by

C. S. Chan

In two articles previously published on labour problems in China, the Review *has already had occasion to discuss the labour legislation of that country: the first studied the conditions in which it has to be applied*[1]; *the second was rather an analysis of the movement in favour of more comprehensive legislation*[2]. *But these articles were mainly concerned with the social legislation of the Peking Government, which remained the central Government of China until the spring of 1928.*

When the Nationalist Government came into power, however, these regulations ceased to exist, and were replaced by other legislation, which had developed parallel with that of the Peking Government in very special conditions, and has already a history of several years' trial behind it. It is the evolution of this new legislation that Mr. Chan studies in the following pages.

So far as has been ascertained the Regulations issued by the Nationalist Government have not yet been translated into any European language; it has therefore been thought useful to append the text of the principal provisions referred to in the article.

I

THE entire social policy of the Chinese Nationalist Party springs from the last of the three great principles that were formulated by Dr. Sun Yat Sen and are still the basis of the Kuomintang programme: the right of nations to dispose of themselves; the right of the people to self-government; the right of the people to decent conditions of life (to "life and welfare").

This last principle, the *Ming Sen Chu I*, means essentially that the man who wishes to work should be allowed to do so, and

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 1, Jan. 1927: "Some Aspects of the Labour Problem in China" by, P. Henry.

[2] *Idem*, Vol. XV, No. 3, March 1927: "The Labour Movement in China", by Dr. Ta Chen.

that the remuneration for his work should be sufficient for a reasonable livelihood. If the formula "every worker should have his *own* land", repeated times without number by the founder of the Nationalist Party, refers only to the peasants, this is due to the fact that the latter represent 80 per cent. of the population of the country[1]. But this idea, interpreted in a wide sense, had of necessity to be extended to all industrial workers as well as agricultural workers. In pursuit of this aim Dr. Sun Yat Sen contemplated limiting rural ownership and capital, but he added that it was not sufficient to equalise the chances of private ownership, as China was too poor; above all it was necessary to increase the national wealth, and the best means appeared to lie in the nationalisation of the great industries. Such, in a few words, are the consequences implicit in the third of the principles formulated by Dr. Sun Yat Sen, as he himself put it in one of his last speeches at Canton. In brief, the system he advocated was one of reformist State Socialism. That he used the term *Ming Sen* (life of the people) instead of the word "Socialism" was simply due, he said, to the desire to avoid the excessive confusion already produced by the latter, every country having its own particular brand of Socialism.

From 1904, when these theories were enshrined in the declaration of the Sacred Union, the origin of the Kuomintang, until 1924, Dr. Sun had scarcely any opportunity of putting them into practice. For from the day he settled in Canton in 1918 until the year before his death the Kuomintang had to contend, not only with the Peking Government, but also with its usurping allies and certain of its own adherents who had turned against it. It may also be observed that from 1918 to the end of 1926 the power of the Nationalist Government was confined to the province of Kwangtung. It was only towards the end of 1923 that the Kuomintang emerged still tottering from these trials, and it was not until January 1924, at the first National Congress held in Canton, that the social policy of the Party was formally proclaimed and its realisation contemplated. This first Congress of the Kuomintang declared that it was the duty of the State to improve the conditions of life of the workers and peasants, to provide assistance in case of

[1] Mrs. Sun Yat Sen said a year ago that her husband, "having been born in the country, and having spent his childhood there, in the neighbourhood of Canton, where rural land-owners seem to be particularly hard on their small tenant farmers, must have retained a very vivid recollection of the latters' sufferings."

old age, sickness, and invalidity, and to promote the education of the workers. At the same time the Party undertook to assist the workers in their struggle for emancipation with all its power. The result was the adoption of a resolution instructing the Nationalist Government: (1) to prepare labour legislation; (2) to try to improve the conditions of life of the workers; (3) to proclaim and safeguard the freedom of association[1].

Of these three tasks the last seemed most suitable for carrying into effect at once. In the first place, there were already at that time a large number of trade unions in the province of Kwangtung; there were 300 unions in Canton and 200 in Hongkong. The trade union movement, which originated in 1919, had in fact made more rapid progress in consequence of certain important strikes, such as that of the seamen and firemen at Hongkong in 1920-1921, and that of the Peking-Hankow railwaymen in 1923. Furthermore, in view of the many difficulties met with in its attempt to unify the country, the Kuomintang had become convinced of the necessity for the assistance of the workers. And if this assistance was to be effective, the workers had to be well organised.

It was in these conditions that the Regulations on the creation of trade unions issued by Dr. Sun Yat Sen in November 1924 came into being. So far as concerned freedom of association, the country was at that date still legally under the provisional Penal Code of 1912 and the Police and Safety Regulations of 1914. Although a trade union Bill had been prepared by the Peking Government, it had not yet been promulgated. The provisional Penal Code of 1912 imposed a penalty of up to three years' imprisonment on strike leaders, and the 1914 Regulations prohibited workers' meetings the object of which was a strike, wage demands, or any action interfering with public order and morals, the penalty for contravention being up to five months' imprisonment.

The first innovation of the new Canton Regulations on trade unions was to declare these harsh measures null and void and to guarantee the workers the right of association in the most liberal manner.[2] Subsequently two other sets of Regulations were issued completing the reform; one on the creation and organisation of district unions, the other on the procedure for the registration of unions. This first legislative action by the Kuomintang in the

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[1] Publications of the Propaganda Committee of the Kuomintang Labour Movement (in Chinese). Canton, 1927.

[2] See Appendix, (1).

social field was greeted with enthusiasm and gratitude by the labour world of China.

II

Dr. Sun Yat Sen died in the spring of 1925. In the midst of the quarrels of his successors in Canton, the principles of social policy bequeathed by him were scrupulously observed. In the meantime the 1924 Regulations on trade unions had rapidly produced results, for by 1925 200,000 industrial workers and half a million agricultural workers in the province of Kwangtung were organised. It may be added that the Regulations had also had useful effects even outside the province.

But the event of the year which proved of cardinal importance for the evolution of the social policy of the Kuomintang was the Nanking Road affair at Shanghai. The foreign police of the International Concession had fired on Chinese demonstrators, killing several students and workers, an incident which aroused fierce indignation and led to the organisation of a boycott. A month later in Canton during a demonstration shots were similarly fired, and again there were many victims. The workers in the foreign undertakings immediately went on strike. A hundred thousand Chinese workers in Hongkong stopped work and returned to Canton on the invitation of the patriots of that town. The presence of these hundred thousand strikers and the population's hatred of imperialism, which was in some measure confused with capitalism — for the principal industrial undertakings in China are in the hands of foreigners — created much agitation among the workers of Canton. The number of trade unions increased at an incredible rate. In opposition to the old General Labour Federation of Canton, a Conference of Workers' Representatives was formed. This body was definitely militant, and came to include 139 unions, as compared with the 39 only of the Federation. The Conference put forward a very bold programme of demands, which was soon taken into consideration by the Kuomintang.

The Second National Congress of the Kuomintang, held at Canton in January 1926, laid down eleven principles of social policy, which were described as the workers' minimum demands, calling for immediate realisation[1]:

(1) Enforcement of social legislation.

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[1] *Ming Kuo Jee Pao*, 16 Jan. 1926. Canton.

(2) Application of the principle of the eight-hour day and total prohibition of more than ten hours' work.
(3) Fixing of a minimum wage.
(4) Protection of women and children; prohibition of the employment of children under fourteen years of age; regulation of apprenticeship; full pay for women workers when on leave before and after childbirth, such leave to be not less than sixty days.
(5) Organisation of hygiene and safety in factories; institution of social insurance.
(6) Freedom of meeting, of speech, of the Press, and the right to strike for the workers.
(7) The suffrage without property or educational qualifications.
(8) Promotion of and assistance to workers' education.
(9) Promotion of and assistance to workers' co-operative societies.
(10) Abolition of the system of sub-contracting.
(11) Full pay on regular holidays.

In addition the Congress advocated setting up a supervisory body, in which the workers should participate, to see that these principles were applied within the sphere of influence of the Nationalist Government. Outside its sphere of influence, the Kuomintang was to support the workers in their demand for these reforms.

During the first half of 1926 disagreements between the members of the Canton Government no doubt delayed the realisation of these principles. The labour movement, however, steadily continued to develop. The Canton labour movement may be said to have reached its climax with the meeting in Canton of the Third Labour Conference for the whole of China. This Congress, which was attended by 400 delegates, representing more than 1,200,000 organised workers in all parts of China, adopted certain principles to serve as a basis for social legislation; these cover the same ground as the resolution of the Second Kuomintang Congress, with the following additions:

Rest on Sundays, holidays, and important anniversaries should be compulsory, and full wages should be paid.
The employment of women and children at night should be prohibited in principle.
A Labour Office for the study of labour questions should be set up with the participation of the workers.
The Government should institute a system of workers' social insurance, the funds for which should be derived from contributions of employers and the Treasury.
The National Federation of Chinese Trade Unions should be consulted when labour legislation is being prepared.[1]

At that time the question of the expedition against the Peking Government was to the fore. Conditions were therefore not very

[1] *Ming Kuo Jee Pao*, May 1926.

favourable to the realisation of the demands of the Nationalist Congress and the Labour Congress. In July 1926 the expedition began and won a first series of victories, in which the workers had their part. Aware of their strength and qualities, the workers grew more and more imperious in their demands, against the desperate opposition of the employers. Labour disputes increased in number and became more and more embittered. It was time for the Nationalist Government to enter on the path of labour legislation, in spite of the difficulties caused by the military operations. In the autumn of 1926 it accordingly issued Regulations instituting a procedure for compulsory arbitration, under which, at the request of either party, any dispute had to be submitted to an arbitration committee consisting of one Government delegate, two employers' delegates, and two workers' delegates; during the arbitration proceedings all strikes and lockouts were prohibited unless they had already been begun before the request for arbitration.[1]

This measure appeared insufficient, particularly in the province of Kwangtung, where trade union organisation was extremely complicated and the employers seemed especially tenacious. In the city of Canton the situation became untenable. Forty per cent. of the workers were unemployed, and large numbers of undertakings had stopped work. Armed fights took place in the streets, either between strikers and "employers' men" or between yellow and red trade unionists. By that time the Central Government of the Kuomintang had already been transferred to Wuhan, in newly conquered territory. It was therefore the Nationalist Provincial Government of Canton that had to deal with the labour disputes in that town. In December 1926 it issued Regulations laying down the following principles:

Employers are forbidden to engage new workers to replace those on strike; employers are however authorised to work themselves.

If the object of the strike is an increase in wages, the employer must pay the workers for the strike days on the basis of the new rates agreed on after the strike.

Employers are forbidden to promote the formation of new unions for the purpose of injuring the unions already in existence in the trade.

Workers are forbidden to interfere with the personal freedom of others, to seize workshops, remove goods and equipment, close shops, or interfere with the employer's own work, etc.[2]

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[1] Publications of the Propaganda Committee of the Kuomintang Labour Movement (in Chinese). Canton, 1927.

[2] *Ming Kuo Jee Pao*, 29 Dec. 1926.

Soon after the New Year (1927), the Nationalist Provincial Government of Canton was again compelled to take legislative action, this time in connection with the right of dismissal. Employers in Canton have a customary right to dismiss those of their employees whose contracts of work are concluded for an unspecified period, on the second day of the first month of the old Chinese year. The employers had this time made use of their opportunity to dismiss a large number of workers whom they considered to be agitators, and even simply because they were organised. The result was violent protests on the part of the workers, and rejoinders by the employers. After prolonged negotiations, the Nationalist Provincial Government of Kwangtung settled the question by a compromise. It maintained the employers' right to dismiss workers on the date in question, but laid down that compensation should be granted to a dismissed worker, and took care to safeguard the interests of the trade unions.[1]

Thus, within the space of half a year, three sets of Regulations on labour disputes had seen the light, and though they seemed intended merely to cope with special difficulties, yet they laid down positive rules governing the relations of capital and labour.

It may be added that in February 1927 the Canton Provincial Government issued Regulations on the employment of workers in the hospitals of the province. This was an attempt at the general regulation of conditions of work in a limited field. For the first time in the social legislation of the Nationalist Government, important questions, such as those of hours of work, a minimum wage, and industrial accidents, were handled.[2]

With the victory of the Nationalist army, the social legislation of the Kuomintang was extended to other provinces. Immediately after the conquest of the province of Hupeh, a Factories Bill was drafted, but so far as the present writer is aware, it has not been put into operation.[3] The text of the Bill, however, expresses a very liberal outlook on the part of the legislature and a desire for practical results.

Since labour disputes were increasing in number in the provinces just conquered by the Nationalist army — the consequence of the sudden liberation of the workers from the yoke of the capitalists and military clans — the Kuomintang Government immediately

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[1] See Appendix, (2).
[2] See Appendix, (3).
[3] See Appendix, (4).

proceeded to settle these disputes by legislative measures. Regulations on labour disputes similar to those for Canton were issued for the provinces of Hupeh, Fukien, Chekiang and, somewhat later, for the city of Shanghai[1] and for Nanking[2], the new capital.

Furthermore, in July 1927, Marshal Feng Yu Hsiang, after formally adhering to the Kuomintang, issued Regulations on factories for the two provinces under his power, Shensi and Kansu[3], so that the social legislation of the Kuomintang thenceforward extended from the south-east to the north-west of China. The writer is not aware how far Marshal Feng's Regulations have actually been applied, but it may be supposed at all events that there must have been great difficulties in the way of putting them into operation, since for these two backward and but slightly industrialised provinces the Regulations in question seem to have been very advanced and definite.

It should be added that in the domain of agriculture the progress of the victorious Nationalist army was followed on the part of the Government by a 25 per cent. reduction in rents in the newly conquered provinces, pending the preparation of complete legislation on agricultural labour.

III

It will be recalled that during 1927 the breach between the Nationalists and the Communists became final. The latter were expelled from the Kuomintang, a decision which marked the end of the policy of collaboration between the Kuomintang and the Communists which had been decided on in 1924. The breach did not, however, have the result that might have been expected of slowing down the Kuomintang's work of social legislation. On the contrary, it gave the legislature a clear field, once the labour movement was cut free from Communist inspiration, to work on the preparation of stable Regulations suited to actual conditions.

Thus in August 1927 the Central Nationalist Government, transferred from Wuhan to Nanking, set up a Labour Office for the administration of labour laws.[4] This Office was subsequently abolished, and its functions are now assigned to the Department of Labour of the new Ministry of Industry and Commerce. The

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[1] See Appendix, (5).
[2] See Appendix, (6).
[3] See Appendix, (7).
[4] *Shun Pao*, 22 Aug. 1927. Shanghai.

duties of the Department of Labour are : (1) to guide and supervise the labour organisations ; (2) to supervise and inspect factories and mines ; (3) to provide for the workers' education ; (4) to provide relief in case of unemployment and the like ; (5) to institute a system of social insurance and set up banks and labour co-operative societies ; (6) to settle labour disputes between employers and workers ; (7) to deal with all matters relating to the International Labour Organisation[1].

The principles of the social policy of the present Nanking Government were defined by Mr. H. H. Kung when Minister of Commerce and Industry. He stated that its immediate aim was to establish equality and harmony between capital and labour so as to save the country from economic suicide[2].

In the spring of 1928, after prolonged study by a Labour Legislation Commission, an Act on conciliation and arbitration in labour disputes was passed. This is the first labour law of general scope issued by the Central Government of the Kuomintang after its establishment at Nanking. The Act is in fact intended to apply to the whole country.

In the province of Canton, where special conditions prevail, special legislation is in force and is being developed, naturally in accordance with the principles of the Central Government of Nanking. The social legislation of Canton already mentioned was consolidated in new Regulations issued in May 1928, which constitute the most complete Labour Regulations hitherto issued in China.[3] Furthermore, a draft Labour Code prepared under the direction of Mr. C. D. Ma, Director of the Department of Agriculture and Labour of the province, is at present approaching completion. According to his scheme, the Code would consist of seven parts : (1) contracts of employment ; (2) collective agreements ; (3) labour organisation ; (4) labour conditions ; (5) conciliation and arbitration ; (6) social assistance ; (7) social insurance.

If particular attention has been given here to the social legislation of Kwangtung Province, which is no longer the seat of the Central Government of the Kuomintang, it is because this province was the scene of the Kuomintang's experiments in labour legislation, and was also the cradle of the labour movement. It should therefore be given pride of place in a study of the evolution of social legislation in the China of to-day.

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[1] *Morning Post* (Peking), 2 April 1928.
[2] *China Weekly Review*, 5 May 1928.
[3] See Appendix, (9).

IV

To sum up, the social policy of the Kuomintang appears as a progressive realisation of Dr. Sun Yat Sen's doctrine of the *Ming Sen Chu I*, or the principle of the right of the people to decent conditions of life. In practice this policy, as we have shown, has taken the shape of a reformist State Socialism, but it is not, as might be supposed, the result of the collaboration between the Kuomintang and the Communists. There is therefore reason to believe that it will continue to develop normally in spite of the breaking off of this collaboration. Its practical application was facilitated or precipitated by the great patriotic movement of 1919-1926, in which the workers took part, and in the course of which they thus had an opportunity of making themselves heard. The success of the Kuomintang is in fact largely due to its social policy. Without the support of the workers and their friends, its work of national unification might perhaps have been delayed.

The first care of the Kuomintang was to give the workers and peasants the power of emancipating themselves at a time when the Nationalist Government still felt itself too weak to settle their relations with employers with a high hand. The result was the Act on Trade Unions of 1924. Later, realising that the disputes arising out of the labour movement threatened the whole economy of the country, and were the seed of disorder, the Government intervened by a series of measures on conciliation and arbitration, while at the same time it experimented with the regulation of conditions of work in a limited field. Finally, after the establishment of the Central Government in Nanking in the spring of 1927, there was a change of method in the preparation of labour legislation, which became more cautious and more carefully thought out.

The results obtained are not negligible, particularly in the province of Kwangtung, where marked progress has been recorded. Wage rates, both in the country and in the towns, have risen substantially, and faster than the cost of living[1]; the organisation of the workers is rapidly improving; the social institutions set up by the unions (employment agencies, schools, relief institutions, etc.) are increasing in number; the use of collective agreements is becoming almost a matter of course; finally — and this result is

[1] "Review of Agriculture and Labour", published in Chinese by the Canton Department of Agriculture and Labour.

particularly important — the social position of the worker has improved, and he is now the equal of the employer, the soldier, and the scholar. The parallel and co-ordinated progress of the Nationalist movement and of its social policy has given confidence to the three hundred million Chinese workers, and it is to be hoped that this progress will continue to gain strength in the direction of economic democracy, until the ultimate achievement of the reform conceived by Dr. Sun Yat Sen.

APPENDIX

Principal Provisions of the Social Legislation of the Chinese Nationalist Government

With the exception of the draft Factory Regulations for Hupeh, which, so far as can be ascertained, have not yet been issued, all the other measures adopted are now in force. It is difficult to say with certainty exactly how far this legislation is being applied, no reports having appeared on this subject. While it is plain from the Chinese Press that the Regulations on freedom of association and industrial disputes are constantly enforced, it is impossible to ascertain how far the Regulations on labour conditions properly so called are really observed.

It must, however, be noted that such Regulations are rather of a provisional character, and have been put into operation by way of experiment. Apart from the mere immensity of the country and the comparatively restricted development of large-scale industry, the political and economic conditions of the last few years have certainly not been favourable to the strict application of a social legislation which on certain points appears to be already very advanced.

(1) *Principal provisions of the Regulations on freedom of association, issued in Canton in November 1924.*[1] (These regulations, issued by the Central Nationalist Government, were intended to apply to the whole of the territory to which the authority of the Nationalist Government extended, the limits of which have been enlarged as the process of unification has advanced.)

Manual and intellectual workers of both sexes, including public officials, shall have the right to combine (section 1).

In order that the constitution of a trade union may be valid it is sufficient that the members are at least 16 years of age, that their number is not less than 50, and that they are engaged in a similar occupation or are employed in the same undertaking (section 1).

A simple application to the public authorities for registration is sufficient to secure the rights conferred by the present Regulations (section 7).

These rights and privileges are: legal personality (section 2); the guarantee of equal treatment with the employers (section 3); freedom of the Press, of speech,

[1] Publications of the Propaganda Committee of the Kuomintang Labour Movement (in Chinese). Canton, 1927.

and of instruction (section 4); the right to strike (section 14); preferential rights in case of the bankruptcy of a credit establishment in which a trade union has deposited its funds (section 17); exemption of certain property from seizure in execution (section 18).

The action of trade unions may extend to the following matters: improvement of conditions of work, finding employment, collective agreements, co-operative societies, vocational and general education, hospitals, clubs, the constitution of mixed arbitration committees, and participation in the preparation of labour legislation (section 10). Trade unions may form federations or be affiliated to an organisation in another province or another country (section 6).

(2) *Regulations on the right of dismissal by employers, issued by the Provincial Nationalist Government of Kwangtung in March 1927.*[1] (Applicable only to that province.)

Employers have the right on one day in the year to dismiss workers engaged permanently or for an indeterminate period. This day is provisionally the second day of the first month of the old Chinese year, subject to special customs in certain undertakings.

A worker so dismissed is entitled to compensation equal to two months' wages and food, subject to existing agreements. The person replacing him must be recruited from the trade union to which he belonged and must be paid at least the same rate of wages.

In case of a decrease in the business of the undertaking, an employer may at any time dismiss any of his workers on payment of compensation equal to two months' wages and food. If the undertaking is in deficit, the compensation is reduced to one month's wages and food. If, however, there is bad faith on the part of the employer, established by an enquiry by the trade union to which the dismissed worker belongs, the authorities may interfere if requested.

The right of dismissal described above does not apply to workers engaged in the management of a trade union during their period of office or for one year after their retirement, with the exception of workers who have been convicted of any penal offence or have failed to discharge the duties of their employment. Workers engaged in the management of a trade union may not absent themselves from work by reason of their office on more than thirty days in the year, not including the regular holidays recognised by the Government.

The right of dismissal recognised by the present Regulations remains intact unless collective labour agreements expressly stipulate to the contrary.

The conclusion of collective agreements must be attested by the trade union and the chamber of commerce concerned.

(3) *Principal provisions of the Regulations on the conditions of work of workers employed in hospitals, issued by the Provisional Nationalist Government of Kwangtung in February 1927.*[2] (Applicable only to that province.)

Hours of work must not exceed 60 per week. Exemptions may be allowed, but overtime must be paid for at a higher rate (section 3).

The hours of work of workers employed at night must be less by one-third than those of workers employed during the day (section 4).

Workers must be employed in accordance with their vocational capacity (section 5).

The minimum wage must be 7 dollars (section 6).

Wages must be paid twice a month, on the 1st and 15th of each month. Holidays must be paid for (section 7).

Regular holidays recognised by the Government must be allowed to workers in the hospitals. They must in addition have an annual holiday of fourteen days (section 10).

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[1] *Idem.*

[2] *Idem.*

Workers who are injured or sick must receive free treatment in the hospital without any deduction from wages. Certain diseases, such as venereal diseases, tuberculosis, etc., are excepted from this provision (section 11).

On the death of a worker, his dependants must receive compensation equal to six months' wages. If his period of service was more than six years, the compensation will be increased. If he was employed in a hospital in which contagious diseases are treated, the compensation will be equal to one year's wages (section 12).

Women workers are entitled to leave with pay for two weeks before and four weeks after childbirth (section 13).

The management must not prevent the workers from joining a trade union (section 14).

The management may only dismiss workers in the following cases: (*a*) in case of a reduction in the number of patients; in this case one month's previous notice and compensation equal to one month's wages are obligatory; (*b*) if the workers fail to observe the regulations of the hospital, or do not properly attend to the comfort of the patients (section 16).

In case of dispute, application must be made to the Government for conciliation and arbitration (section 15 and 16).

(4) *Principal provisions of the draft Factory Regulations for Hupeh, December 1926.*[1] (Applicable only to the province of Hupeh.)

The minimum age for admission to employment is fixed at 12 years (section 4).

The employment of young persons under 15 years of age and of women is prohibited between the hours of 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. (section 5).

The minimum wage is fixed, except for apprentices, at 13 dollars per month (section 7).

Hours of work are fixed at ten per day. The weekly rest is compulsory and must be paid for (section 6).

The same work must be paid for at the same rate without distinction of sex (section 9).

Six weeks' rest must be allowed to women in case of childbirth (section 10).

A worker injured in an industrial accident must receive treatment at the expense of the employer. In case of total incapacity the employer must pay him a pension equal to the wages he would have received during the whole of his life. This pension shall be at the charge of the Government if the undertaking ceases to exist. In case of death the employer must pay the funeral expenses and must pay the family of the victim compensation, varying with the age of the deceased, for a period of from 5 to 10 years (section 11).

A sick worker must receive treatment at the cost of the employer and is entitled to half wages. The death of a worker as a result of sickness gives his family the right to compensation, varying with the number of years' service in the undertaking (section 11).

When an interruption of the work of an undertaking is the result of the voluntary act of the employer, he must pay the workers their usual wages (section 12).

The employer must obtain the consent of the trade union to the engagement or dismissal of any worker (section 13).

Any employer failing to observe the foregoing provisions is liable to a fine of from 500 to 1,000 dollars, etc.

(5) *Principal provisions of the Regulations on industrial disputes of Shanghai, August 1927.*[2] (Applicable only to that city.)

Wages must be paid for the period of a strike at the average between the rate in force up to the time of the strike and the new rate agreed on at the end of the strike. The Government of the district may order the payment of wages at the old rate only if it is established by the commission on industrial disputes that the workers were responsible for the dispute. If, on the contrary, the employer

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[1] *Morning Post* (Peking), 28 Dec. 1926.
[2] *Shun-Pao*, 20 Aug. 1927. Shanghai.

was responsible for the dispute, the Government may order payment at the new rate. In both cases neither the employers nor the workers may claim damages for any loss caused to them by the cessation of work (section 8).

Employers and workers are forbidden to procure the participation in any industrial dispute of persons not concerned in the matter in question, and particularly of any vagabonds, under severe penalties (section 9).

Employers may only dismiss their workers on one specified day in the year; this day will be fixed by the Government of the district (section 11).

Workers are forbidden to carry arms during any demonstration. If they provoke disorder in spite of the intervention of the police, they may be arrested and severely punished (section 19).

(6) *Principal provisions of the Regulations on industrial disputes of Nanking, August 1927.*[1] (Applicable only to that city.)

The Regulations apply to disputes between employers and workers in industry or commerce or between masters and domestic servants (section 1).

Every industrial dispute must be settled by the commission on industrial disputes, before which the matter may be brought on the application of one of the parties. The parties are forbidden to resort to a strike or lockout before the decision of the commission (section 2).

If an industrial dispute is not settled by the parties themselves within three days, and if no application is made for bringing it before the commission, the latter may, after enquiry, intervene on its own initiative (section 3).

During a strike employers are prohibited from engaging new employees to replace those on strike. The employer may, however, work himself (section 5).

In the case of a strike arising out of a demand for an increase of wages, the workers striking must be paid for the period of the strike at the new rate of wages agreed on after the strike (section 8).

Employers are not entitled to dismiss their workers without lawful cause. In case of absolute necessity obliging them to close down their undertakings, they must give the workers one month's notice and compensation equal to one month's wages. If an undertaking is closed down without lawful cause, two months' wages and compensation must be paid to the workers (section 9).

(7) *Principal provisions of the Labour Regulations of Marshal Feng Yu Hsiang, July 1927.*[2] (Applicable to the provinces of Shensi and Kansu.)

Relations between workers and employers must be regulated by mutual contracts concluded on the basis of the legal provisions on maximum hours of work and minimum wage rates (section 1).

In addition to voluntary work carried out under a contract, workers may be required by the Government to render compulsory service in special circumstances such as military operations, epidemics, urgent public works (section 2).

Collective agreements concluded between trade unions and employers shall be applicable also to workers engaged in the same occupation who are not members of the trade union (section 5).

The period of validity of collective agreements must not exceed one year (section 6).

Trade unions representing the workers in the conclusion of labour agreements are not responsible for the productive capacity of these workers (section 7).

Individual contracts of employment must be of such a character as to facilitate the execution of collective labour agreements, having in view always the improvement of the condition of the workers (section 9).

Workers or employers may rescind contracts of employment if the other party commits certain faults (sections 11 and 12).

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[1] *Morning Post* (Peking), 6 Aug. 1927.

[2] *The Peking Leader*, July 1927.

Hours of work are to be 7 per day, with a possible extension to a maximum of 8 hours (section 15).

For intellectual workers, children under 16 years of age, and pregnant women, hours of work must be strictly limited to 7 per day (section 16).

Hours of work for night work must be one hour less than for day work and the hourly rate of wages for night work must be higher by one-eighth to one-sixth than the rate for day work (section 17).

The time necessary for meals must be included in hours of work (section 18).

The beginning and end of the working day must be so fixed as to harmonise with the customs prevailing in the different localities (section 19).

The employment of children under 14 years of age is prohibited (section 20).

The employment of children under 16 years of age on night work or underground is prohibited (section 21).

Women must be exempted from work during eight weeks before and eight weeks after childbirth. This leave must be paid for (section 22).

The employment of pregnant women on night work is prohibited (section 23).

Women who have been pregnant for more than five months must not have their job changed without their consent (section 24).

On the birth of a child the wages of the mother for one month must be paid in advance, and an increase of 20 per cent. must be paid to her during the nine following months (section 25).

A woman worker must be allowed to leave her work for half an hour every three hours and a half for the purpose of nursing her child (section 26).

Other provisions relate to the method of payment of wages, fines, holidays, absence, etc.

(8) *Principal provisions of the Regulations on conciliation and arbitration, issued by the Central Nationalist Government of Nanking in April 1928.*[1] (Applicable to the whole country.)

Conciliation shall take place in case of an industrial dispute between employers on the one hand and trade unions or groups of at least 30 workers on the other hand.

It may be requested by one of the parties or ordered by the administrative authorities. Nevertheless the decision of the conciliation committee is not enforceable unless it is accepted by both parties. In case of acceptance this decision has the force of an agreement between the parties.

If the conciliation proceedings lead to no result, arbitration may be demanded by common agreement between the parties or be ordered by the administrative authorities.

Arbitration is compulsory when the dispute affects industries of importance for national defence, the water, gas, or electricity services, the postal, telephone, and telegraph services, railways, etc.

Except in the case of a formal demand by both parties, arbitration must be preceded by an attempt at conciliation.

The arbitration award is binding. It has the force of an agreement between the parties.

The conciliation committee consists of from five to seven members : two representatives of each party and from one to three representatives of the administrative authorities.

The arbitration committee consists of five members : one representative of the provincial or cantonal Government, one representative of the provincial or cantonal committee of the Nationalist Party, one representative of the local court (the president or a judge), one employers' representative and one workers' representative, both of whom must have no concern with the dispute.

During conciliation or arbitration proceedings, strikes and lockouts are prohibited.

If any decision of a conciliation or arbitration committee which has become binding is not carried out, the offenders are liable, without prejudice to the right of civil action, to a fine of not more than 100 dollars, or imprisonment for not more than 40 days.

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[1] *Shun-Pao*, March-April 1928. Shanghai.

(9) *Principal provisions of the Labour Regulations issued by the Provincial Nationalist Government of Kwangtung in May 1928.*[1] (Applicable only to that province.)

In principle, employers must recruit workers among the members of a trade union.

An employer must within certain limits employ workers who are officers of a trade union.

In addition to the regular holidays recognised by the authorities, workers must be allowed at least one Sunday per month. Work done on holidays must be paid for at the ordinary rate *plus* 100 per cent.

If food is supplied by the employer, it must satisfy the requirements of health.

Apprentices must be allowed two hours a day for instruction.

Workers injured by an industrial accident must receive treatment at the expense of the employer. During the first four months of medical treatment they must be paid and may not be dismissed.

In case of incapacity or death, compensation equal to at least six months' wages must be paid to the victim or his family.

Women workers must have two months' leave with pay before and after childbirth.

The hours of work of factory workers must be not less than eight and not more than ten per day. Payment for each hour of overtime must be equal to quarter of the wages for a whole day.

Women and children employed in factories may not be employed for more than eight hours per day.

Workers may be dismissed for the following reasons : (*a*) if the worker is convicted of a penal offence ; (*b*) if the undertaking is compelled to close down through lack of business ; (*c*) if the worker fails to observe the provisions of the labour agreement or the regulations ; (*d*) if the worker absents himself from work without just cause for more than three consecutive days or on more than six days altogether within a month. Except in the first of these cases, the worker must receive one week's notice of dismissal, failing which he shall be entitled to one week's wages and food by way of compensation.

In the following cases dismissal is only allowed with 15 days' notice and on payment of compensation equal to 15 days' wages and food : (*a*) restriction in the amount of business of an undertaking as a result of a deficit ; (*b*) necessity of closing down for more than two months owing to defective condition of machinery ; (*c*) necessity of closing down owing to conditions of production or of marketing ; (*d*) incapacity of the worker.

On the second day of the first month of the old Chinese year an employer is entitled to dismiss his workers, subject to one month's notice and the payment of compensation equal to one month's wages and food. Failing previous notice the compensation shall be increased to two months' wages and food.

The worker may, in the following cases, terminate his engagement by giving 10 days' notice and demand from his employer an allowance equal to one month's wages and food (if no notice is given the allowance will be reduced to 15 days' wages and food) : (*a*) if payment of wages is too often in arrear ; (*b*) if the employer does not observe the conditions of employment or the provisions of labour legislation ; (*c*) if the workers are ill-treated by the employer or his agents ; (*d*) on the second day of the first month of the old Chinese year.

If the departure of the worker may cause loss to the undertaking, the worker must give his employer 10 days' notice, or he will be liable for damages.

The contribution to a trade union must not be more than 2 per cent. of a worker's wages.

Workers engaged in the organisation of a trade union must not absent themselves from employment on account of their official duties for more than twenty-four hours per month.

All labour agreements and all previous legal provisions contrary to the provisions of the present Regulations are annulled.

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[1] *Morning Post* (Peking), 26 May 1928.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

Industrial Relations in the United States

As a part of the programme of the First Triennial Congress of the International Association for the Study and Improvement of Human Relations and Conditions in Industry (I.R.I.), held at Cambridge (England) from 27 June to 3 July 1928, there was a series of excellent reports upon industrial relations in the United States, prepared by a group of experts in their respective fields.[1] This group consisted of H. S. Person, Ph.D. (Taylor Society, New York), W. V. Bingham, Ph.D. (Personnel Research Federation, New York), C. R. Mann, Ph.D. (American Council on Education, Washington), W. J. Donald, Ph.D. (American Management Association, New York), Florence C. Thorne (American Federation of Labour, Washington), and Glenn A. Bowers (Industrial Relations Counsellors, Inc., New York).

The individual reports of this group were summarised by a committee consisting of Lillian M. Gilbreth, Ph.D. (Consulting Engineer, Montclair, New Jersey), Mary van Kleeck (Director, Department of Industrial Studies, Russell Sage Foundation, New York), and Glenn A. Bowers. This summary[2], the principal passages of which are reproduced below, gives an up-to-date picture of trends and developments in the major fields of industrial relationships in the United States and is suggestive of the background upon which these developments are based.

In the United States of America the fundamental relationships of people in industry are rapidly changing and the influences responsible for these changes are many and complicated. They are so inextricably woven into the fabric of political, industrial and social life that it is bewildering to try to isolate any one. What are the most influential factors ? How are they interrelated ? What is the actual effect of each ? No reasonable person pretends now to know. Yet the definite trends that are discernible are evidences of efforts to work out some sort of coherent system. In few instances do these efforts represent the concerted endeavour of all those interested. On the contrary, one of the conspicuous habits of the past which has been carried over into the present is that of regarding each phase of industrial relationships as a

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[1] International Association for the Study and Improvement of Human Relations and Conditions in Industry : *Report on the Development of Fundamental Relationships within Industry in the United States of America.* Reprinted from the first volume of the Report of the Proceedings of the Congress held by the Association in Cambridge, June 1928. Secretariat : 66 Javastraat, The Hague, Holland.

[2] Pages 5-16 of the report cited above.

unit to be approached and dealt with separately. Frequently also those interested in one particular phase completely ignore the activities of other groups or even oppose them.

There are, however, in America indications of a desire to co-ordinate these groups, philosophies and activities, also of similarity of approach to outstanding problems. Already this spirit of consideration for all aspects of the total situation is of practical usefulness. In the preparation of this report the facilities of seven substantial organisations were immediately available. The historian of the future may possibly look back upon such co-operative projects, of which this is but one example, as the beginnings of a new viewpoint in the efforts to resolve conflicts in industry. Indeed, if there be one outstanding characteristic of labour relations in American industry in 1928 it is the approximate uniformity of philosophy and *modus operandi* of dominant groups. It is encouraging to note that organised and unorganised employers and employees are pinning their faith on constructive co-operation for the advancement of their respective group interests and are using similar and often identical language in voicing their aspirations.

In this brief summary of six papers only hasty reference can be made to some of the most important influences in American industry. The five factors in the development of fundamental relationships especially considered are those of primary interest to the I.R.I., namely: scientific management, education, industrial psychology, personnel administration, and labour unionism. These fields of interest inevitably overlap. The functions and tentative accomplishments of each of these will be treated here under the following six categories:

(1) The worker and his work.
(2) The worker and his immediate supervisor.
(3) The worker and his fellow workers.
(4) Managers and workers.
(5) Owners, managers and workers.
(6) The entire circle of contacts.

In each of these six areas the above-named factors have been influential in varying degree. As to present-day objectives in industrial relationships there is general agreement among the organisations representing the viewpoints of management, workers and scientists which have co-operated in this report; public and private pronouncements of the several representative bodies include the following in various forms of expression:

(1) *The Worker and his Work:*

(*a*) Discover and present in concise form the requirements of the job.
(*b*) Evaluate, in so far as possible, special abilities of the worker.
(*c*) Develop training facilities appropriate to the job.
(*d*) Conserve the workers' energy through finding the easiest and most natural ways of doing the work, thus reducing fatigue.
(*e*) Increase the quality and quantity of output.
(*f*) Provide fullest opportunity for growth, individual expression, initiative and advancement of the individual in proportion to his ability.

(*g*) Encourage workers' participation in improvement of methods and conditions of work and in the elimination of waste.

(*h*) Compensate the individual in proportion to his special ability and contribution wherever practicable.

(2) *The Worker and his Immediate Supervisor:*

(*a*) Provide clear and definite instructions in work assignments.

(*b*) Make the immediate supervisor a skilful instructor and an understanding helper of his men.

(*c*) Assure the reasonableness of work requirements through the determination of a proper day's work.

(*d*) Set up safeguards against the misuse of powers of supervisor over individual.

(*e*) Develop and maintain the worker's appreciation of his share in responsibility for the product.

(3) *The Worker and his Fellow Workers:*

(*a*) Provide equality of opportunity and remove discrimination between individuals.

(*b*) Develop an esprit de corps which will harmonise competing interests, real or imaginary, for the attainment of the common goal.

(*c*) Preserve freedom of association of workers for the advancement and protection of special group interests.

(*d*) Devise and preserve a wage plan which is equitable as between workers.

(4) *Managers and Workers:*

(*a*) Share responsibility for the development of sound policies of administration.

(*b*) Facilitate the association of workers for joint dealings with management through a predetermined orderly procedure.

(*c*) Provide regularity of employment.

(*d*) Pay the highest practicable wage consistent with enduring operation under existing competitive conditions.

(5) *Owners, Managers and Workers:*

(*a*) Develop clear understanding of functions, rights and responsibilities of these overlapping groups.

(*b*) Devise and maintain an orderly procedure for harmonising the interests of each group.

(*c*) Seek an equitable distribution of rewards among workers management and capital.

(*d*) Yield earnings for employees which will permit a rising standard of living and the accumulation of adequate reserves for incapacity in old age.

(6) *The Entire Circle of Contacts:*

(*a*) Combine in each producing unit the efforts of all persons associated with it for efficient output in quality and quantity.

(*b*) Discover by methods of science how the requirements of industry and the capacities of men may be adjusted.

(*c*) Co-ordinate the needs of industry and society through training and education.

(*d*) Conduct the industrial enterprise that it may best serve the society of which it is a part.

Such are the goals of American industry. How is this master job being approached ? What has been accomplished ?

After a brief account of the plan of research in industry in the United States and a recital of existing industrial wastes, the report points out that this recital serves but to focus the problems for which employers, employees and industrial scientists are seeking solutions. The most promising field of rapid development lies in the direction of better human relationships.

Present programmes for solutions are of very recent origin. Scientific management as originated by Frederic Taylor has had the longest history among those here considered, yet it did not receive widespread attention until 1910. Industrial psychology, notwithstanding its twenty years of struggle, has not yet made a perceptible mark on American industry as a distinct science. Consciously planned personnel administration had its beginnings between 1910 and 1915, and after radical changes in basic notions has only now become a recognisable function of management. The readjustment of educational curricula to meet the needs of twentieth century industrial society is a post-war development, while the present changing policies of organised labour are as yet in an embryonic stage.

The methods of industry for improving the relations between *the worker and his work* are much the same in all groups. Discovery of the requirements of the job and the capacities of individuals calls for a technique in which there is little occasion for difference of opinion. Actual accomplishment in job specification already has been substantial in that practical pattern forms have been devised and are in daily use in large and small establishments. The extent to which these are applied throughout industry is, however, limited. A generation of workers and managers will doubtless pass through industry before this tool is adequately developed and widely applied.

This experimentation is all aimed at securing freedom of opportunity that releases individual energy. Meanwhile, the selection, placement and promotion of the individual worker is being made through the use of expediency measures, often reasonably successful for present purposes.

In this concentration on the worker and his work, the supervisor plays an essential part. Upon *the worker and his immediate supervisor* rests the responsibility for the work in process. The foreman is as powerful an influence for good or evil to-day as ever.

The growth of trade unions and company employee representation plans at first curtailed the freedom of the foreman particularly in stating what he could not do. More recently, however, the tide has turned and the foreman is taking on a new kind of responsibility. He is now the key administrator through whom practically all personnel activities become effective. His authority is enhanced by providing him with more effective tools of administration. The worker's relations with the foreman have become more closely inter-related as a result of the more intelligent efforts at co-operation in efficient production.

The introduction of training programmes is an aid to the foreman first by helping him to study his own task, second by placing more capable workmen on the job in shorter time and third by teaching

him how to train both new and older workers more effectively.

Relationships between *the worker and his fellow worker* are of three general types. Historically and even predominantly to-day the worker is related to other workers only as an individual. In a sense each is a competitor for the job of his neighbour. Fortunately, there have been enough jobs for all, except during intermittent periods of depression. Secondly, some 4,000,000 or more workers are associated in trade or industrial unions for the protection and advancement of their group interests. Thirdly, workers of many individual establishments are associated in the company or plant for direct organised contact with the management. Perhaps 1,700,000 are under this form of joint relations. Within these latter two types there are many variations in form.

It is doubtful that scientific management, industrial psychology or education had any noteworthy influence upon the development of these particular group or joint relationships just mentioned. The labour union and the employee representation movements were rather sponsored respectively by employees and employers.

Principally as a result of war-time joint relations, but also as a natural evolution of thought, managers and owners came to accept the principle of collective bargaining. Some, however, refused to limit this operation to dealings with unions and insisted that agreements arrived at with employees of a single company, frequently with arbitration provisions, also constitute collective bargaining. Whatever may be the correct view, it is certain that many of the company plans established or stimulated by employers could not be abandoned without a strike of the employees under it.

Thus changing relationships between the worker and his fellow workers have brought about a new status individually and collectively between *managers and workers*. The post-war extension of this philosophy of co-operation has not been limited to any one group or any one type of joint relationship. A momentous development has taken place grounded on the principle that increased wages and standards of living can only be attained through efficient production.

In this two-phased co-operative movement the ultimate goals sought by the trade unionists and the advocates of the company employee representation movement, as expressed by the leaders of these groups, are identical. Both want a prosperous industry which will pay high return in the form of wages, salaries and profits. Whatever may be the form of joint relations, the methods used by workers and managers co-operating constructively are of the same order and kind. Such methods include participation in planning, suggestions for improvement of methods and working conditions, conferences, and in the exercise of other functions and procedures involving judgment.

Managers and workers are in this manner being drawn into a community of interests which has hitherto prevailed only to a limited degree. This has been enhanced somewhat by the changing relationships between *owners, managers and workers*. On the one hand owners and managers have become separate entities as the corporate stock form of industrial organisation has taken the place of managing partnerships, while on the other hand the spread of capital ownership has made the employee

a factor as an owner of securities. This new employee position is not confined solely to employee holdings of stock in the company for which he works, but includes also investments in savings banks, insurance policies and the potential business operations of trade unions.

An important element in this changing economic status of workers is the present widely held theory that high wages enhance purchasing and that industry thus expanded yields increased rewards for all parties. It yet remains to be seen how long this theory will prevail in actual practice. Widespread unemployment or a general industrial depression would put the theory of high wages to a crucial test.

It may be seen, therefore, that the manager and the worker are enhancing their positions in the triumvirate with capital and that the inter-dependence of the family circle — *the entire circle of contacts* — is more clearly recognisable. In fact this philosophy of mutuality of interests, multiplicity of responsibility, and integration of purposes and methods appears to be the emerging ideal of American industry. However, if this be the goal it is yet a long way from accomplishment. The hopeful sign lies in the apparently narrowing area of conflict and the extension of the area of co-operation.

It would be extremely unwise to attribute to any one movement the blame or credit for the industrial relationships which exist in the United States to-day. There is plenty of stigma and glory for all. Each has had its influence, either in one direction or another. In some cases there has been unanimity of purpose and methods ; in other instances there have been divergent viewpoints. Nevertheless out of this mosaic the following outstanding accomplishments may be credited each to the movement which was dominant in seeking it.

(*a*) *Scientific management* has contributed a new viewpoint and a new technique ; it has laid the groundwork for the recognition of functional relationships in industry ; and it has set up operating situations which develop habit patterns of understanding, co-operation and high productivity.

(*b*) *Industrial psychology* has focussed attention on the individual worker and his job ; it has brought into the foreground mental processes and emotional reactions in industry as fields for scientific study.

(*c*) *Education* is developing a basis for creating situations in which the individual will have maximum opportunity to do the work he is best fitted to do and his natural aptitudes will be given free range of expression through individualised training.

(*d*) *Personnel administration* has demonstrated the importance of meeting personal needs of workers and adjusting them to the requirements of the individual producing unit ; it has applied many of the tools of science without calling them scientific.

(*e*) *Organised labour* has been a prime and potential factor in raising the standards of living of American workers ; it has been a strong force in support of capitalistic industry, and is contributing substantially to the enlistment of workers' full efforts in production.

Finally, the existing relationships in industry have doubtless developed as they have in America because of influences that are more basic than or at least precedent to the five especially considered in this paper. For 150 years Americans have been engaged in conquering a continent

of vast natural resources under a political organisation peculiarly their own. A philosophy of individualism clearly expressed in the early days of the republic has laid its imprint on industrial development. Only in this century has the doctrine of the priority of public interest come to be generally accepted and even yet its application is far from general. Scientific management, industrial psychology, education, personnel administration and the labour movement each represent conscious attempts to direct the development of fundamental relationships within industry in ways which will benefit all those concerned whether immediately or remotely.

Vocational Training and Technical Instruction in the Irish Free State

The industrial development of the Irish Free State has led to increasing attention being paid to the whole problem of vocational training and technical instruction. The Ministry of Education consequently decided that an investigation should be made to determine both existing conditions and the needs of industry in the way of technical training, and at the end of 1926 appointed a Commission on Technical Education "to enquire into and advise upon the system of technical education in Saorstát Eireann in relation to the requirements of trade and industry". The letter of instructions addressed to the Commission calls special attention to "the fundamental principle that technical education can have and should have as profound an educational and civic value as any other form of education".

In view of the importance of the investigation and the need for securing the support of all parties with an interest in the question, the Commission consulted a very wide range of witnesses. These included representatives of Government Departments, local technical instruction committees, local committees of agriculture or combined committees of agriculture and technical instruction, chambers of commerce, employers' associations, trade unions, teachers' organisations, and various other organisations and individual witnesses. The Commission held 75 meetings and heard evidence from 129 witnesses in all. Its full and well-documented report[1] was published at the end of 1927.

The comprehensiveness of the enquiry may be indicated by the following list of chapter headings in the report: historical survey; survey of existing facilities for technical education; primary education in relation to technical education; continuation education; technical education in relation to employment; technical education in relation to specified trades and occupations; apprentice committees; higher technical education; localisation of schemes, local control and rating obliga-

[1] SAORSTAT EIREANN. COMMISSION ON TECHNICAL EDUCATION: *Report.* Dublin, 1927. 210 pp.

tions; central control and finance; the Gaeltacht[1]; the training of teachers required for continuation and technical schools; salaries and conditions of service of whole-time continuation and technical teachers.

All these questions are studied from two points of view: the present situation and the best solution for the future. The fullness of the evidence submitted and the large measure of agreement in the views of the witnesses enabled the Commission to arrive at definite conclusions as to the requirements of the situation.

The principal recommendations and conclusions of the Commission are given in full farther on in this summary, but special attention may be called to certain remarks and suggestions in the report.

The Commission consider that radical changes in the whole system of technical education are necessary, as the system in operation was established more than a quarter of a century ago, and it is consequently unable to meet the present-day needs of industry and trade. Two definite causes of the failure of the existing system are mentioned: the inadequate standard reached in the primary schools, and the absence of a general system of continuation schools and classes.

As regards primary education, which has only recently been made compulsory, it was generally agreed that its standard was too low and school attendance very irregular. The evidence presented to the Commission strongly confirmed the view that defective primary education was often the cause of much difficulty for the students in the technical schools; the evidence of employers was emphatic on this point. In fact, the average age at which the children leave school was said to be 10½ years in the larger urban areas and between 11½ and 12 years in the rest of the country.

The Commission gave special attention to the period in the life of young people between leaving school and definitely settling down to work. Some of them, but not many, join evening classes in the technical schools. There seemed to be general agreement that steps should be taken to fill this gap, since primary school pupils at 14 years of age cannot appreciate the realities of employment and the special forms of instruction related to it.

In view of the failure of the apprenticeship system to adapt itself to the demands of modern trade and industry, and the consequent danger of a shortage of properly trained workers, the Commission emphasise the need that candidates for entry to the "skilled" trades should be of sound education, and recommend that an apprentice should not be engaged until he has reached a certain standard of practical efficiency. It further recommends that attendance at a technical school should be made compulsory in the first two years of apprenticeship, and that the instruction should be by day-time classes, either part-time or whole-time, with a minimum, in the case of part-time instruction, of 180 hours in each of these two years.

The Commission expresses approval of a scheme of "apprentice

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[1] The "Gaeltacht" here means the uneconomic areas, mainly on the western seaboard, in the counties of Donegal, Mayo, Galway and Kerry, where it is recognised that the conditions render early employment imperative.

scholarships " which would enable apprentices in rural areas to attend a course of training at an urban centre where suitable facilities are available.

The Commission recommend the appointment by the State of apprentice committees for each trade or group of trades, to contain an equal number of representatives of employers and workers, and an independent chairman. The functions of these committees would be to give advice on all matters relating to apprenticeship, training, and the entry into industry. The committees would naturally work in close co-operation with the existing juvenile advisory committees, which work with the employment exchanges with a view to placing boys and girls in the occupations for which they are mentally and physically suited.

The Commission found that in all quarters — among employers, trade unions, individuals, Government Departments and education authorities — there was genuine and widespread interest in the question, combined with anxiety to find a solution in the near future. The general agreement as to the need for improving primary education and extending the facilities for sound technical training (classes, technical schools, the apprenticeship system in general, apprentice scholarships, etc.) is shown by the amount and value of the evidence submitted to the Commission, and summarised in its able and interesting report. The following summary is given in the report[1] of the principal conclusions reached by the Commission:

Primary Education in relation to Technical Education.

1. All sixth standard pupils of primary schools should be tested in an examination prescribed by the Department [of Education], and success in this examination should entitle the pupil to the award of a school-leaving certificate.

3. Drawing should be reinstated as portion of the obligatory curriculum for all pupils in primary schools up to and including sixth standard.

4. Arrangements should be made in urban areas to send groups of the more mature pupils of primary schools to the local technical schools for instruction in domestic science and woodwork, and the technical schools should be authorised to conduct special classes to meet their requirements.

Continuation Education.

6. A system of practical continuation schools and classes should be established to educate young people between the ages of 14 and 16.

7. The programme for continuation schools and classes should be distinct from the programme for technical schools and classes and should be set out in two main groups for rural and urban areas.

10. Pending the provision of new schools continuation classes should be held in technical school or primary school buildings.

14. The curricula of many secondary schools should be altered to meet the special needs of young people entering employment at the age of 16 and should include as *obligatory* subjects : science, drawing, manual instruction, and domestic economy.

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[1] Pages 145-150.

18. As soon as the necessary accommodation and staff are provided, attendance at continuation classes should be made compulsory in any locality in the following manner:

(a) *whole-time attendance in urban areas* for all young people between 14 and 16 who are not in employment, only those in approved employment to be exempted;

(b) *part-time attendance in urban areas* for a minimum of 180 hours in each year of the period for all young people between 14 and 16 in approved employment;

(c) *part-time attendance in rural areas* for a minimum of 180 hours in each year of the period for all young people between 14 and 16.

Technical Education in relation to Employment.

24. In a centre where the requisite educational facilities are available, an apprentice to a skilled trade should not be engaged until he has reached the standard of proficiency that should be attained by completion of a course at a whole-time continuation school.

25. In order to induce some of the best products of the rural primary schools to enter the skilled trades, some of the existing scholarships from primary schools to secondary schools should be made tenable in continuation schools with a trade bias.

26. Attendance at a technical school should be made compulsory in the first two years of apprenticeship to skilled trades and attendance should be of not less than 180 hours of daytime instruction in each year.

27. The advice of a committee representative of the employers and employees in each trade should determine whether the compulsory training should be through whole-time instruction in organised apprentice schools or through part-time classes.

30. Apprentice scholarships should be instituted to enable apprentices outside the main urban centres to undergo a full year's course of training in a selected centre.

36. Outside the county boroughs and the larger urban centres, the present extensive facilities for commercial instruction should not be continued.

37. Wherever evening commercial classes are provided, admission should be more strictly confined to students over 16 already in occupations.

Apprentice Committees.

39. Legislation on the lines of the South African and Queensland Apprenticeship Acts is the best method of dealing with the problem of industrial training in the Saorstát; the legislation should provide for the scheduling of trades, the registration of apprentices and the appointment of statutory committees for each trade or group of trades to advise on all matters relating to apprenticeship, industrial training and means of entry to industry. The functions of a committee should include advice on such matters as the proportion of juveniles to adults, the length of the period of apprenticeship or learnership, the prescribed form of indenture, the age of entry, the standard of education on entry, the opportunities in the workshop or factory for learning a trade, the arrangements for attendance at technical classes and the special type of education that would appear to be most suitable.

40. The apprentice committees should be appointed by the State and should consist of equal numbers of representatives of employers

and of workers, should have an independent Chairman, and should have, as members, Officers of the Department of Education and of the Department of Industry and Commerce.

Technical Education in relation to Specified Trades and Occupations.

41-46. Apprentice committees should be constituted in the first instance for the following trades :

Building and allied trades ;
Mechanical engineering ;
Electrical engineering ;
Motor garage work ;
Printing trade ;
Hotel and restaurant work.

47. Residential schools should be established in centres such as Kerry, Mayo or Connemara, and Donegal for the intensive training of girls between the ages of 16 and 18, as waitresses and cooks.

48. Whole-time continuation schools in centres such as Arklow should be given a definite bias towards the fishing industry, and a suitable vessel should be acquired for the practical training of boys for the fishing industry.

50. A school for the training of boys for the Mercantile Marine should be established, if on investigation it appears that a substantial number of boys so trained can be readily absorbed into the service.

Higher Technical Education.

51. There is a necessity for the continuance and wide development of the technological work that has been in the past the function of the Royal College of Science, and if such technological courses are not to be developed in the future at the universities, the re-establishment of a separate institute for the purpose will have to be seriously considered.

52. The schemes of technical education in Dublin, Cork, and Limerick should be extended to include full-time day courses of secondary technical character.

53. The schemes of education in Cork and Rathmines should be extended to include commercial courses of a secondary character on the same plan as proposed for the technical courses.

Localisation of Schemes, Local Control and Rating Obligations.

54. For purposes of educational efficiency the Saorstát should be divided into three administrative groups :

(*a*) the County Boroughs of Dublin (including the four adjoining urban districts), Cork, Limerick, and Waterford ;
(*b*) the larger Urban Districts (Galway, Dundalk, Drogheda, Wexford, Sligo, Tralee, and possibly Kilkenny) ;
(*c*) the rest of the Saorstát as County Areas, including within each such area urban districts other than those enumerated above.

60. The control of continuation and technical education should be vested in the local statutory committees of technical instruction. These committees should consist in future of twelve members, two nominated by the Department of Education and ten selected by the rating authority, of whom two should be representatives of employers and two of organised labour. For County Areas the membership should be increased by one member nominated by the Council of each urban district participating in the county scheme.

62. An Executive Officer should be appointed to fulfil the dual function of Principal and Secretary in connection with the new schemes of continuation and technical education.

63. Obligatory minimum rates for continuation and technical education should be raised as follows :

(*a*) three pence in the pound in the county boroughs ;

(*b*) three pence in the pound in the larger urban districts ;

(*c*) two pence in the pound in all other areas.

65. All legislation now in force relating to technical education should be repealed, in so far as it interferes with the proposals made with reference to the constitution of technical instruction committees and the rating powers of local authorities.

Central Control and Finance.

68. The funds at present allocated to technical instruction by way of " Normal Grant " should be increased and a committee should be appointed to advise on the amount required and its allocation.

69. Payment of grants per instruction-hour should replace the existing system of attendance grants.

72. The State should supplement by a grant the funds raised by additional rates levied by local authorities for the erection of buildings and the provision of equipment of a permanent character.

The Gaeltacht.

74. Practical continuation schools should be established in the Gaeltacht for children of 12 years of age and upwards.

76. Residential schools should be established in the Gaeltacht for the training of girls for domestic service.

77. A Central Industries Bureau should be established to deal with rural industries.

The training of Teachers required for Continuation and Technical Schools.

79. The proposed new schemes of continuation and technical education should be preceded by intensive training of teachers and a sum should be set apart in the annual estimates of the Department of Education for the expense of their training.

80-90. The State should establish scholarships for the training of teachers in accordance with suggestions enumerated in the report (paragraphs 309 to 324).

Salaries and Conditions of Service of whole-time Continuation and Technical Teachers.

91. Definite scales of salaries and of travelling and subsistence expenses should be drawn up by the Department of Education and prescribed as obligatory on local committees employing whole-time teachers.

92. The Department should draft standard conditions governing the appointment and duties of whole-time technical teachers.

The schemes of the Commission will involve considerable expenditure by both the State and the local authorities, and will require a considerable period before they can be generally adopted. But the Commission

are convinced that the expenditure is necessary for raising the level of education of the people and the development of trade and industry in the country and that it will be repaid in the benefits derived from it by the country as a whole, whose prosperity depends largely on an adequate supply of properly trained and skilled workers. The report may well be looked upon as a foundation on which to build the future development of industrial progress in the Irish Free State.

Hours of Work in Great Britain in 1927

The British factory inspection report for 1927[1] covers much the same ground as in previous years. The longest sections are those dealing with safety, dangerous trades, hygiene, and welfare. The short section entitled "Employment"[2], however, contains information of special interest on hours of work, which is summarised here.

Hours in General

The report explains that advantage was taken of the more normal conditions prevailing throughout the year to ascertain the actual hours worked in the principal industries, and enquiry was made to determine whether there was any general tendency to lengthen hours of work.

Reports from all parts of the country and from Scotland showed that the 48-hour week remained the basic week. At busy seasons 52 to 54 hours weekly might be worked, not from any tendency to lengthen hours, but because this has always been the practice except in times of acute depression. In a few instances even longer hours were worked, up to the legal maximum of 55½ in textile and 60 in non-textile works. Hours in excess of 48 were more frequent in the Midlands and South than in the North, where the continued depression in the textile trades adversely affected other industries catering for textile workers.

In many trades irregularity of employment operated against steady employment for 48 hours weekly. In trades affected by fashion, there seemed to be a tendency to keep stocks very low, so that rush orders caused overtime employment, followed by short time. Similar conditions were found in the silk trade and in the textile part of hosiery factories.

In bakehouses employment in excess of 48 hours continued in all parts of the country. In London the usual working week was 50 to 59 hours; elsewhere in several cases a total weekly period of well over 70 hours was found.

The five-day week maintained its popularity, and there was a slight

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[1] Great Britain; Home Office: *Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the Year 1927*. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 155 pp.

[2] Pages 56-59.

increase in the number of factories working on this system, which is specially convenient when labour is drawn from outlying districts, as a long journey on Saturday is avoided. In a large engineering works in North-East London, where the five-day week was in force, it was reported that output had at least been maintained, if not increased, and neither employers nor workers had any desire to revert to the six-day week.

The Two-Shift System for Women and Young Persons

Under section 2 of the Women, Young Persons, and Children Act, 1920, the Secretary of State may make Orders allowing the employment of women and young persons over sixteen years of age in two separate shifts during the day, between 6 a.m. and 10 p.m. Such Orders, however, can only be issued on the joint application of employers and workers, and this proviso has proved a valuable safeguard. During the year 104 Orders (as against 64 in 1926) were made. They relate to a wide range of industries, both textile and non-textile. The Orders may be broadly classified in two groups. First, those obtained to tide over periods of emergency, such as may be caused by a fire or a breakdown of machinery, or cases where there is a temporary difficulty in co-ordinating the work of one or more departments. In such cases the system is dropped directly normal conditions obtain. Secondly, Orders which are in regular operation as a permanent method of working; these are generally found in connection with continuous processes. Orders are sometimes also obtained to meet seasonal pressure in order to avoid overtime and give employment to a greater number of workers.

Special enquiries into the working of these Orders showed that on the whole the conditions under which they were granted were well observed, and very few irregularities, except minor ones, were found. The observance of the conditions was perhaps rather better in factories where shift employment was permanent than where it was a purely temporary measure, as in the former permanent arrangements were made for supervision, meals, and welfare amenities generally, whereas in the latter case only improvised arrangements were possible.

The report expresses the opinion that the system, which was regarded somewhat as an experiment in factory legislation (especially the requirement of joint application by employers and workers), has proved useful and beneficial to both employers and workers. If the workers are opposed to shifts they can refuse to sign the joint application; this has occurred on several occasions. In many cases, however, shifts are popular, especially in mining areas, where whole families work on the shift basis. The initial stages of the artificial silk industry, which is still new and experimental, have found the elasticity obtainable through the Orders especially useful.

STATISTICS

Recent Wage Changes in Various Countries[1]

Czechoslovakia

The information published in Czechoslovakia on the movement of wages in industry is somewhat scanty. In particular, there are no data for the country as a whole by means of which to follow the movement of wages since the end of the war and to compare recent levels with those in 1914.

For the city of Prague, however, two sources of information are available. In January 1928 Dr. G. Reif, Chief of the Social Statistics Service in the Statistical Office, published a study in the " Statistical Bulletin of the Czechoslovak Republic " on " The level of wages in the Capital of Prague during the years 1916-1926, in comparison with the year 1914 ". The data given in the study refer to 32 different industries and occupations and are in general based on the minimum wage rates fixed by collective agreements (see table I below). Secondly, more recent information on the wages of workers in certain occupations in the building, engineering, furniture-making, and printing industries in Prague is furnished by the reports communicated to the International Labour Office every month by the Czechoslovak Government. These figures are published regularly in the *International Labour Review* (see table II below),

In addition, information is available on wages in mines during the years 1924-1927 (table III), and on wages in agriculture during the years 1923-1928 (table IV). These figures are published in the *Rapports de l'Office des Statistiques de la République Tchécoslovaque.*

It will be seen from table I that the movement of nominal wages from 1923 to 1926 varied widely in different branches of industry. In joinery work, cotton spinning, and printing, the averages of the minimum wage rates remained unchanged throughout the four years in question; for tailors and bookbinders the changes were insignificant. In the other branches mentioned in the table there was an upward

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[1] For previous articles in this series, cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVII, No 5, May 1928 (Great Britain); No. 6, June (France, Belgium); Vol. XVIII, No. 1, July (Denmark, Norway, Sweden); No. 2, Aug. (Spain); No. 3, Sept. (Netherlands, Switzerland); Nos. 4-5, Oct.-Nov. (Germany); No. 6, Dec. (Austria, Poland).

movement. The general average for the 32 groups examined shows a steady though slight upward tendency. Real wages during the period in question were more than 25 per cent. higher than their pre-war level. It should however be pointed out that these remarks refer to hourly rates. The movement of daily or weekly real wages would show a less favourable relation, on account of the change in hours of work, which were 48 to 72 hours a week in 1914, but since the war have been only 48 hours in the branches considered.

Table II shows that nominal wages in the engineering trades have increased to some extent since 1926, while there has been a slight downward tendency in the building, furniture-making and printing trades during the last two years. By way of comparison, the table also shows the movement of the cost of living, which is slightly upwards.

Table III shows that the movement of nominal daily earnings in coal and lignite mines has on the whole been upwards; in some cases the increase stopped in 1926 and in others it continued in 1927.

According to the data in table IV, the money wages of day labourers and "deputatists" in agriculture have risen steadily from 1923 to 1928, the total increase being from 25 to 30 per cent.

TABLE I. AVERAGES OF MINIMUM HOURLY WAGE RATES[1] OF WORKERS IN DIFFERENT BRANCHES OF INDUSTRY IN PRAGUE, 1914 AND 1923-1926

Branch of industry	1914	1923	1924	1925	1926
	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny
Locksmithing	0.51	3.79	3.85	4.06	4.16
Tinsmithing	0.59	3.75	3.80	3.99	4.10
Metal founding	0.40	2.51	2.63	2.85	2.85
Joinery	0.48	4.73	4.73	4.73	4.73
Cotton spinning	0.24	2.58	2.58	2.58	2.58
Tailoring	0.55	5.53	5.53	5.53	5.86
Bookbinding	0.24	2.86	2.84	2.84	2.84
Building	0.53	4.03	4.14	4.26	4.26
Carpentry	0.62	5.57	5.42	5.55	5.60
Painting	0.58	4.44	4.42	4.59	4.59
Printing	0.65	6.39	6.39	6.39	6.39
Electrical industry	0.44	3.51	3.51	3.56	3.74
Average for 32 groups	0.44	3.90	3.94	3.99	4.04
Index number of average minimum wage rates	100	886	895	907	918
Index number of real wages[2]	100	127	128	125	128

[1] Unweighted arithmetic annual average of the twelve weighted monthly averages.

[2] Calculated on the basis of the index numbers of the cost of living in Prague, which were 695 in 1923, 697 in 1924, 725 in 1925, and 715 in 1926.

TABLE II. NOMINAL WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF CERTAIN CATEGORIES OF WORKERS IN DIFFERENT INDUSTRIES IN PRAGUE, 1924-1928

Industry and occupation	1924 1 July	1925 1 July	1926 1 July	1927 1 July	1928 1 July
	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny
Building industry :					
Bricklayers or masons	220.00	237.50	250.00	240.00	250.00
Carpenters	225.00	252.50	252.50	252.50	232.50
Painters	260.00	277.50	277.50	277.50	277.50
Labourers	165.00	175.00	175.00	180.00	165.00
Engineering trades :					
Fitters	260.00	265.00	262.50	247.50	265.00
Ironmoulders	265.00	265.00	280.00	295.00	317.50
Patternmakers	305.00	320.00	330.00	320.00	345.00
Turners	245.00	240.00	240.00	250.00	270.00
Labourers	160.00	155.00	160.00	155.00	167.50
Furniture trades :					
Cabinet-makers	250.00	255.00	300.00	289.00	290.00
Labourers	170.00	170.00	170.00	150.00	140.00
Printing and bookbinding trades :					
Machine compositors	285.00	285.00	285.00	285.00	275.00
Bookbinders	210.00	222.50	220.00	212.50	212.50
Labourers	200.00	195.00	187.50	187.50	187.50
Index number of the cost of living (1914 = 100)	694	746	723	753	753

TABLE III. AVERAGE DAILY EARNINGS OF DIFFERENT CATEGORIES OF WORKERS IN COAL AND LIGNITE MINES IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA, 1924-1927

Category of workers	Coal				Lignite			
	1924	1925	1926	1927	1924	1925	1926	1927
	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny
Underground workers :								
Hewers	44.01	46.00	49.46	49.82	45.26	48.89	49.17	49.42
Drawers	33.00	33.70	36.70	37.02	—	—	—	—
Other adult workers	28.44	40.02	42.37	42.71	33.40	31.58	35.51	35.41
Youths	23.07	21.33	22.97	23.50	16.12	18.28	15.55	13.93
All underground workers	38.00	39.79	42.68	43.02	40.70	40.34	42.24	42.39
Surface workers :								
Specialised workers	32.95	37.82	39.42	38.96	34.17	38.84	38.92	38.87
Other adult workers		30.20	31.15	31.03		24.32	32.52	29.08
Youths	11.64	11.77	11.94	13.41	14.67	13.37	11.07	11.68
Women	16.09	16.82	17.04	17.05	20.61	21.30	20.77	20.81
All surface workers	31.19	31.89	33.11	33.07	32.94	28.41	33.51	31.48

TABLE IV. HOURLY WAGE RATES OF DAY LABOURERS AND MONTHLY MONEY WAGE RATES OF " DEPUTATISTS "[1] IN AGRICULTURE, IN CORN-GROWING DISTRICTS[2] IN BOHEMIA, MORAVIA, AND SILESIA, 1923-1928

Province and category of workers	1923-1924	1925-1926	1927	1928
	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny	Koruny
Bohemia :				
Day labourers (per hour) :				
Men	0.95–1.10	1.09–1.27	1.14–1.33	1.20–1.35
Women	0.80–0.90	0.92–1.04	0.97–1.09	1.00–1.10
Deputatists (per month) :				
Herdsmen	95–110	109–127	114–133	120–135
Horsemen	90–100	104–115	109–121	110–125
Cattlemen	80– 90	92–104	97–109	100–115
Women	75– 90	92–104	97–109	100–115
Moravia :				
Day labourers (per hour) :				
Men	1.00	1.15	1.21	1.24
Women	0.75	0.86	0.90	0.93
Deputatists (per month) :				
Herdsmen	80–96	92–110	97–115	101–119
Horsemen	80–96	92–110	97–115	101–119
Cattlemen	72–80	83– 92	87– 97	91–101
Women	64–72	74– 83	78– 87	81– 91
Silesia :				
Day labourers (per hour) :				
Men	1.25	1.45	1.52	1.57
Women	0.95	1.10	1.16	1.19
Deputatists (per month) :				
Men	120[3]	138	145	149
Women	90[4]	104	109	112

[1] In addition to the money wage, deputatists receive lodging and important quantities of foodstuffs and other payments in kind. In 1928, in Bohemia, they were given the following : a room (at least 12 square metres for the parents and 2 square metres for each child) ; 1,600 kg. of coal or 2,400 kg. of lignite and 4 cubic metres of wood per year ; a litre of milk per day (if the worker has more than two children he can also buy quarter of a litre of milk at half price for each child after the second) ; 60 kg. of flour (wheat, rye, and barley) or 85 kg. of cereals (wheat, rye, and barley) per month ; 80 kg. of potatoes per month or 10 ares of land with seed potatoes, manure and the necessary means of transport ; 1 kg. of fat per month (butter, lard), or if the worker keeps a pig, 100 kg. of barley per year. In other provinces and other years the payments in kind varied slightly.

[2] In the corn-growing regions, wage rates vary with the productivity of the soil. Higher rates are paid in districts where sugar-beet growing predominates, and the lowest rates are paid in pasture-land districts.

[3] *Plus* a bonus of 100 koruny at the New Year.

[4] *Plus* a bonus of 50 koruny at the New Year.

Hungary

In Hungary there is no information on wage movements for the country as a whole. For the city of Budapest, however, numerous data for the various branches of industry have been published in the *Statistisch-Administratives Jahrbuch der Haupt- und Residenzstadt Budapest* for 1928. The figures in the tables below are taken from this source.

Table I shows that during the years 1925-1927 wages varied widely in different industries and occupations. These variations are probably due in large part to the economic disorganisation which preceded the reform of the currency. Money wages were highest in certain skilled occupations in the following industries : printing, building, food, clothing, and iron and steel smelting.

Although there was considerable diversity between the fluctuations in the different branches of industry, the level of money wages was in general higher at the end of 1927 than at the end of the two previous years. As the cost-of-living index number was practically the same at the end of 1927 as at the end of 1925 (112 in December 1925, 105 in December 1926, and 113 in December 1927, compared with 100 in July 1914), it is correct to say that the general trend of real wages during this period was slightly upwards.

Table II shows that since 1925 the salaries of non-manual workers in private undertakings have in general been rising. Those of public officials, on the contrary, fell in 1926, when the cost of living also fell, and rose again in 1927.

Table III, giving average hourly wage rates in certain municipal services of the city of Budapest from 1925 to 1927, shows an uninterrupted upward movement for all the categories of workers mentioned.

TABLE I. NOMINAL WEEKLY WAGES OF VARIOUS CATEGORIES OF WORKERS IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIES IN BUDAPEST, 1925-1927[1]

Industry and category of workers	1925 December	1926 December	1927 December
	Pengö	Pengö	Pengö
Metal industry :			
Steel smelters	49.94	58.62	53.28
Iron smelters	51.43	52.99	55.68
Tool makers	38.96	40.40	41.76
Turners	33.26	41.21	38.40
Mechanics (women)	18.42	18.57	20.64
Labourers (women)	15.17	16.40	20.64
Helpers (women)	19.96	18.92	23.72
Wood industry :			
Cabinet makers	34.51	34.65	42.24
Turners	53.52	42.35	44.16
Leather industry :			
Tanners (skilled)	32.92	21.09	21.04
Helpers (men)	25.74	16.93	16.89
„ (women)	18.13	11.80	11.76
Textile industry :			
Cotton weavers (men)	20.71	22.44	24.00
„ „ (women)	17.73	17.65	24.00
Clothing trades :			
Tailors (skilled, hand-sewn work)	32.09	30.62	31.68
Ready-made clothing workers (machine work), highly skilled pressers, fitters	61.35	59.68	65.28
Helpers (skilled)	40.26	40.43	44.16
Bootmakers	40.54	30.20	30.12
Food trades :			
Flour-mill workers (men)	21.66	21.75	23.52
„ „ (women)	13.70	13.76	15.36
Bakers (highly skilled)	54.31	54.53	58.17
„ (skilled)	45.77	45.96	49.05
Pastry-cooks	49.96	44.12	46.00
Butchers	47.93	48.13	44.00
Chemical industry :			
Factory workers	26.84	24.06	26.40
Building trades :			
Labourers (men)	21.40	21.56	19.20
„ (women)	14.69	14.82	15.30
„ (young persons)	15.25	14.82	12.48
Carpenters	38.34	36.58	46.08
Glaziers	47.56	47.76	48.50
Cement workers	38.34	34.65	43.20
Printing trades :			
Printers (skilled)	52.02	54.70	57.00
„ (helpers)	33.76	35.45	36.50
„ (women)	29.28	30.56	31.50

[1] From the information published it is not possible to determine whether the figures are earnings or wage rates.

TABLE II. MONTHLY SALARIES OF VARIOUS CATEGORIES OF NON-MANUAL WORKERS IN PRIVATE UNDERTAKINGS AND STATE OFFICIALS IN BUDAPEST, 1925-1927

Category of employees or officials	1925	1926	1927
	Pengö	Pengö	Pengö
Medium-size banks :			
Employees with :			
4 years' service	172.80	150.42	176.67
10 years' service	198.63	228.64	266.67
15 years' service	276.05	285.80	316.67
22 years' service	335.29	401.12	458.34
Managers	607.21	752.11	750.00
Large banks :			
Employees at entry	71.15	82.22	112.50
Employees with 5 years' service	248.02	282.22	266.66
Typists (women) at entry	88.67	—	75.00
Typists (women) with :			
5 years' service	147.16	224.59	258.33
10 years' service	202.03	224.59	258.33
Commerce and industry :			
Employees (men) with :			
1 year's service	100.86	101.28	109.38
5 years' service	165.20	165.89	179.16
10 years' service	190.70	191.50	206.82
Employees (women) with :			
1 year's service	83.54	83.89	90.60
5 years' service	111.83	112.30	121.28
10 years' service	154.21	154.85	167.24
Subordinate staff with :			
1 year's service	76.90	77.22	83.40
5 years' service	111.89	112.34	121.33
10 years' service	127.81	128.34	138.61
State services :			
Councillors of Section	606.92	505.33	610.25
Ministerial Secretaries	448.54	364.96	449.00
Assistant Ministerial Secretaries	328.55	260.69	321.50
Members of Section	256.74	204.54	258.83
Assistant Members of Section	209.45	164.43	210.58

TABLE III. AVERAGE HOURLY WAGE RATES OF CERTAIN CATEGORIES OF WORKERS IN MUNICIPAL SERVICES IN BUDAPEST, 1925-1927

Kind of service and category of workers	1925 December	1926 December	1927 December
	Pengö	Pengö	Pengö
Electricity supply :			
Technicians	0.70	0.82	0.88
Mechanics	0.76	0.88	1.00
Labourers	0.45	0.56	0.63
Gas supply :			
Boiler and engine stokers	0.57	0.64	0.76
Coal workers	0.45	0.56	0.63
Labourers	0.42	0.52	0.59
Water supply :			
Mechanics	0.72	0.77	0.89
Labourers and helpers	0.48	0.53	0.61

Employment and Unemployment

Table I giving unemployment statistics shows for certain countries the percentage of workers unemployed. In some cases these percentages are based on data compiled by the trade unions in respect of their members, while in other cases they refer to the workers covered by unemployment insurance laws. For some countries for which no such data are available information is given as to the numbers registered at various dates at the employment exchanges as unemployed or the number of unemployed workers who have received assistance. Table II gives index numbers of employment for certain countries.

In the *Review* for July 1924 and later months an outline was given of the methods by which the statistics given in the tables are compiled, together with particulars of the original sources in which they are published.

Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom : *Socijalno-politicka Revija Radnicka Zastita.*

A new series is given below for the first time showing the number of unemployed registered at the end of each month by the Central Employment Exchange of the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. The figures are published in the " Official Bulletin of the Central Office for Workers' Insurance ".

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany					Australia		Belgium			
	Trade unionists				Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies			
	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed			Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.				Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1923											
Feb.	431,765	10.4	151,616	3.6	1,237 504	•	•	7,480	1.2	24,932	4.0
March	383.224	9.2	15 797	3.7	1,121.150	45,638	10.7	5.294	0.8	17,108	2.7
April	295.135	6.9	180,7	4.2	729,329	•	•	4.922	0.8	17.769	2 8
May	270,103	6.3	215,759	5.0	629.470	•	•	4,092	0.7	22,574	3.6
June	268,443	6.2	255,090	5.9	610.687	46,656	11.2	3,709	0 6	19,115	3.0
July	273.696	6 3	283,562	6.5	564.034	•	•	4.471	0 7	23.768	3 8
Aug.	288 375	6 5	312 051	7.1	574 475	•	•	3,397	0 5	23 888	3.8
Sept.	293 691	6.6	303 466	6 9	577 093	—	—	3,464	0.6	20,561	3.3
Oct.	325,293	7.3	303,737	6.8	670,997	•	•	—	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	4,450,202				•	416 827		614.028			

The sign • signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Austria	Canada		Denmark		Estonia	Finland	France
	Compulsory insurance	Trade unionists		Trade union unemployment funds				
	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number of unemployed registered	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit
1928								
Feb.	223,964	12,522[1]	7.0	71,200[1]	25.9	4,113	2,535	14,408
March	193,449	11,965	6.5	61,600[1]	21.3	3,134	2,139	10,473
April	154,817	9,573	5.2	42,243[1]	16.6	2,162	1,482	7,273
May	130,393	6,657	3.7	39,117[1]	14 0	1,470	868	3,746
June	118,737	5,800	3.2	37,503[1]	13.5	883	811	1,659
July	115,211	4,500[1]	2.5	37,037[1]	13 6	486	762	1,095
Aug.	118,851	4,274	2 4	35,600[1]	13.1	467	857	1,010
Sept.	112,595	4,068	2.2	33,100[1]	12 2	706	946	562
Oct.	122,557	—	—	40,100[1]	14.8	1,561	1,600	453
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	181,022		271,320		•	•	•

Date (end of month)	Great Britain and Northern Ireland				Hungary			Irish Free State		Italy	
	Compulsory insurance				Trade unionists			Compulsory insurance		Number of unemployed registered	
	Wholly unemployed		Temporary stoppages		Christian	Social-Democratic		Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unempl.	Partially unempl.
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Number unemployed	Per cent.				
1928											
Feb.	967,595	8.2	259,909	2.2	1,029	16.215	10.8	31,949	13.0	413,383	58,109
March	903,805	7.7	223,817	1.9	1,054	15,194	10.0	•	•	411,785	47,036
April	898.019	7.6	222,729	2.0	1,016	14.027	9.3	•	•	356,795	45,833
May	893,304	7.6	274,705	2.3	955	13.275	8.7	26,449	10.8	306,629	45,569
June	917,726	7.8	355,634	3.0	1 001	12,860	8.5	•	•	247,021	30,296
July	958.567	8.1	418,464	3.6	875	12 242	8.1	•	•	234,210	27.590
Aug.	979,926	8.3	395,293	3.4	832	12.523	8.3	22,843	9.3	248,100	24,319
Sept.	1,019,179	8.6	335,832	2 9	818	12,134	8.0	•	•	268,883	28,746
Oct.	1,059.429	8.9	344,482	2.9	—	—	—	•	•	282,379	25.689
Number on which latest percentages are based	11,881,500				•	151,100[1]		245,613		•	

Date (end of month)	Latvia	Norway			New Zealand		Netherlands	
	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists (10 unions)		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies	
		Number unemployed	Per cent.		Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1928								
Feb.	6,461	8,642	25.9	28,290	6,605	11.4	27,505	9.0
March	5.570	8,13	24.4	26,692	•	•	19,740	6.3
April	2,950	7.654	28.8	24.719	•	•	15,620	5.0
May	1,295	—	18.6	19.871	6,478	11.5	14.083	4.4
June	1.223	4.925	14.4	16,747	•	•	14,302	4.4
July	928	4,674	13.6	15.365	•	•	17.100	5.3
Aug.	965	4,834	13.9	15,817	6,298	11.3	16.670	5.2
Sept.	1.914	—	—	17,859	•	•	13,833[2]	4.7[2]
Oct.	5.179	—	—	—	•	•	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	34,863		•	55,676		293,825[1]	

[1] Approximate figures. [2] Provisional figures.

The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Poland	Russia	Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom	Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia	
				Trade unionists		Unemployment funds		Trade union insurance funds	
	Number unemployed registered	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number unemployed registered	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Per cent. unemployed		Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Per cent.
						Wholly	Partially		
1928									
Feb.	179,644	1,482,800	18,968	35,183	13.2	•	•	20.131	1.8
March	167,676	1,576,400	7,582	36,722	13.3	1.9	1.0	17,734	1.6
April	153,016	1,592,700	9,123	32,218	11.7	•	•	16,683	1.4
May	135,542	1,571,060	6,820	22,978	8.2	•	•	—	—
June	116,247	1,471,320	5,696	21,257	7.6	1.2	0.8	13,468	1.2
July	100,487	1,389,810	—	20,238	7.4	•	•	13,627	1.2
Aug.	90,976	1,344,000	—	19,826	7.1	•	•	15,588	1.4
Sept.	82,642	—	—	22,159	7.6	1.1	1.0	16,304	—
Oct.	79,478	—	—	26,650[2]	9.1	•	•	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	•		292,867		262,538		1,113,429	

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany[1]	Canada[1]	Estonia[1]	United States	Switzerland
	Index number of employment				
	Membership of sickness funds on 1 Jan. 1925=100	Number employed on 17 Jan. 1920=100	Number employed on 1 Jan. 1927=100	Average number employed in 1923=100	Number employed in March 1925=100
1928 Feb.	104.2	101.4	108·9	85.5	•
March	105.8	101.1	110.0	86.1	106.7
April	109.5	105.5	111.7	85.7	•
May	111.8	112.4	119.1	85.5	•
June	112.3	116.3	118.7	85 6	110.1
July	112 4	119.9	120.4	81 7	•
Aug.	112.4	119.5	116.9	86.0	•
Sept.	112.1	118.9	112.1	87.3	—
Oct.	—	119.1	—	88.1	•
Number of persons on which latest figures are based	•	1,000,063	39,131	3,890,778	220,819

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. [2] Approximate figures.
The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Index Numbers of the Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Tables I to V give for a number of countries index numbers of the cost of living, food, clothing, heating and lighting, and rent. Notes on the sources and methods of compilation of the statistics were given in the *Review* for July 1924 and later months.

TABLE I. COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Cairo)	Germany	Australia	Austria	Belgium [1]	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile [2]	Denmark	Danzig	Egypt	Estonia [2]
Towns and localities	9	72	6	Vienna	59	12	60	Chile	100	Danzig	Cairo	Tallinn
1927 Oct.	132	150	*	106	207	2700	156	197	176	141	152	104
Nov.	132	151	*	108	207	2660	156	183	*	140	152	105
Dec.	132	151	147	107	207	2692	157	—	*	140	153	105
1928 Jan.	132	151	*	107	209	2735	157	—	176	139	152	108
Feb.	131	151	*	107	206	2777	156	—	*	140	151	109
March	132	151	146	107	203	2791	156	—	*	141	151	111
April	133	151	*	107	204	2841	155	—	176	139	151	113
May	133	151	*	107	202	2857	155	—	*	140	149	113
June	132	151	—	109	204	2818	155	—	*	140	149	112
July	131	153	*	108	205	2861	155	—	176	141	151	116
Aug.	131	154	*	108	206	2742	157	—	*	141	153	114
Sept.	131	152	—	109	209	—	157	—	*	140	153	112
Oct.	—	152	*	109	212	—	157	—	172	140	—	112

Country	United States [2]	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [2]	India	Dutch Indies [3]	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania [2]
Towns and localities	32	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay		105	Milan	Riga	84
1927 Oct.	*	1237	*	169	1956	113	150	158	175	536	102	136
Nov.	*	1251	*	169	1964	112	151	155	*	536	102	139
Dec.	172	1243	498	168	1978	113	154	155	*	531	105	138
1928 Jan.	*	1216	*	166	155[3]	112	148	151	177	531	102	136
Feb.	*	1206	*	164	154	112	145	148	*	533	105	136
March	*	1214	507	164	153	114	144	148	*	531	105	135
April	*	1212	*	164	153	114	147	146	170	531	106	134
May	*	1207	*	165	153	117	146	145	*	526	107	136
June	170	1219	519	165	152	118	147	144	*	530	109	136
July	*	1236	*	165	148	118	146	145	173	526	113	139
Aug.	*	1258	*	165	146	120	145	147	*	522	120	144
Sept.	*	1249	519	166	145	121	146	—	*	526	113	137
Oct.	*	1254	*	167	148	119	147	—	176	—	114	136

Country	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands [4]	Peru [2]	Poland	Rumania	Russia [2]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Luxemburg	31	4	Amsterdam	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country	229	49	33	Prague
1927 Oct.	797	196	*	*	182	119	3840	202	*	161	727
Nov.	802	195	161	*	177	122	3900	205	*	162	729
Dec.	804	195	*	170	176	121	3973	205	171	162	734
1928 Jan.	800	194	*	*	178	120	4090	205	*	161	734
Feb.	797	194	161	*	177	118	4120	203	*	161	732
March	795	193	*	169	176	119	4061	203	171	160	730
April	794	193	*	*	176	121	4085	206	*	160	734
May	794	193	162	*	176	121	4090	206	*	160	736
June	805	193	*	170	177	122	4099	210	173	161	734
July	813	193	*	*	175	123	4086	209	*	161	746
Aug.	821	192	161	*	175	122	4100	207	*	161	754
Sept.	831	185	*	169	175	122	4135	209	172	161	749
Oct.	836	184	*	*	169	123	4 06	—	*	162	726

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1913 = 100. [3] New series, in gold. [4] 1911-1913 = 100.

The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria	Belgium [1]	Bulgaria	Canada	Denmark	Egypt	Spain	Estonia [2]
Towns and localities	9	72	30	Vienna	59	12	60	100	Cairo	Madrid	Tallinn
1927 Oct.	119	152	•	120	210	2696	150	152	146	189	108
Nov.	119	152	•	119	211	2654	151	•	148	188	108
Dec.	119	153	156	118	211	2686	152	•	147	186	109
1928 Jan.	119	152	153	118	210	2734	152	152	143	178	113
Feb.	118	151	152	117	207	2778	150	•	142	175	114
March	118	151	153	116	201	2790	149	•	139	176	117
April	119	151	154	117	202	2851	148	152	140	174	121
May	120	151	154	117	199	2869	147	•	139	171	121
June	118	152	154	122	203	2830	146	•	140	172	120
July	116	154	152	119	204	2878	147	153	144	173	127
Aug.	115	156	150	120	206	2747	151	•	143	174	124
Sept.	115	153	150	120	208	—	152	•	148	178	119
Oct.	—	152	—	120	213	—	154	146	—	179	120

Country	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [2]	India	Dutch Indies [3]	Irish Free State	Italy
Towns and localities	51	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay		105	Milan
1927 Oct.	152	1156	520	163	2071	127	147	156	172	509
Nov.	153	1175	500	163	2086	122	149	153	•	510
Dec.	152	1171	523	162	2101	123	151	153	•	513
1928 Jan.	151	1126	530	159	146[3]	122	146	152	175	514
Feb.	148	1112	522	155	144	121	142	151	•	518
March	148	1123	524	155	143	124	140	150	•	516
April	149	1119	532	154	144	126	144	146	162	516
May	150	1113	546	156	145	130	142	145	•	513
June	149	1126	557	157	144	132	143	145	•	520
July	149	1155	547	156	138	131	142	146	166	513
Aug.	151	1191	540	156	134	133	141	147	•	506
Sept.	154	1174	544	157	132	133	142	—	•	513
Oct.	153	1183	566	159	138	129	144	—	171	—

Country	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Peru	Poland	Russia	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Riga	51	4	Lima	Warsaw	229	49	33	Prague
1927 Oct.	135	173	143	161	144	203	155	159	834
Nov.	139	171	144	151	149	208	155	161	836
Dec.	142	171	146	149	147	209	152	160	844
1928 Jan.	143	170	146	153	143	208	152	159	845
Feb.	144	170	145	151	138	206	151	158	842
March	138	171	145	152	140	205	152	157	838
April	139	171	144	152	142	210	153	156	844
May	139	172	147	154	142	211	154	156	847
June	144	171	147	155	143	218	156	156	843
July	147	173	146	152	144	217	156	157	853
Aug.	151	170	146	151	143	210	156	156	871
Sept.	155	164	147	151	142	215	154	157	861
Oct.	—	163	149	142	144	—	152	158	821

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1913 = 100. [3] New series, in gold.

The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLES III TO V. INDEX NUMBERS OF CLOTHING, HEATING AND LIGHTING, AND RENT

Country	Germany	Austria	Belgium[1]	Canada[2]	Denmark	Spain	Estonia[2]	United States[2]	Finland	France	Great Britain	Hungary[2]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Norway	New Zealand	Poland	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	72	Vienna	59	60	100	Madrid	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	31	4	Warsaw	49	33	Prague
TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1927 Oct.	162	185	230	155	196	•	149	•	1037	•	215	128	157	195	597	•	•	169[3]	•	162	1013
Nov.	164	185	232	155	•	•	149	•	1038	•	215	129	154	•	596	•	147	169	•	162	1013
Dec.	166	185	234	155	•	•	149	163	1038	581	215	129	152	•	591	172	•	169	182	162	1013
1928 Jan.	167	185	236	155	196	•	150	•	1039	•	215	135	153	196	591	•	•	169	•	162	1013
Feb.	168	185	237	155	•	•	150	•	1040	•	215	135	151	•	591	•	145	169	•	162	1013
March	169	183	240	155	•	•	150	•	1043	581	218	135	153	•	591	169	•	169	184	162	1020
April	170	183	241	157	198	•	150	•	1043	•	220	135	155	200	591	•	•	169	•	166	1020
May	170	183	240	157	•	•	150	•	1044	•	220	134	156	•	566	•	146	169	•	166	1020
June	170	183	242	157	•	•	150	163	1048	581	220	134	158	•	559	169	•	169	185	166	1033
July	171	183	244	157	198	•	150	•	1048	•	220	134	159	206	561	•	•	169	•	166	1040
Aug.	171	183	243	157	•	•	150	•	1049	•	220	134	157	•	561	•	145	169	•	166	1040
Sept.	171	183	246	157	•	•	150	•	1052	591	220	134	156	•	561	—	•	169	186	166	1032
Oct.	171	183	247	157	198	•	150	•	1052	•	220	—	—	206	—	•	•	169	•	169	1026
TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1927 Oct.	146	100	182	158	194	176	79	•	1403	•	170	127	156	178	530	•	•	111[3]	168	141	814
Nov.	146	100	181	158	•	176	77	•	1439	•	170	129	156	•	522	•	179	112	168	140	819
Dec.	146	100	177	158	•	173	80	163	1440	555	170	128	156	•	422	170	•	113	168	141	819
1928 Jan.	146	100	176	159	190	169	82	•	1440	•	170	124	144	172	420	•	•	113	168	139	819
Feb.	146	100	170	159	•	169	82	•	1430	•	170	122	141	•	409	•	179	114	166	139	819
March	146	100	168	159	•	169	83	•	1438	547	168	122	145	•	407	167	•	115	166	139	819
April	145	99	168	159	190	171	81	•	1436	•	170	119	145	172	407	•	•	116	166	138	819
May	144	99	168	158	•	171	81	•	1434	•	168	119	158	•	407	•	179	120	165	137	819
June	144	99	170	158	•	171	81	177	1436	504	165	119	158	•	407	162	•	124	164	136	819
July	144	99	168	157	185	171	81	•	1424	•	165	122	158	168	407	•	•	121	—	136	819
Aug.	145	99	169	157	•	171	84	•	1421	•	168	121	151	•	407	•	179	121	—	135	819
Sept.	147	99	170	157	•	173	84	•	1429	510	170	127	144	•	407	—	•	123	162	135	842
Oct.	149	99	172	157	183	173	81	•	1426	•	170	—	—	173	407	•	•	130	160	136	842
TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1927 Oct.	125	13	184	156	189	•	52	•	1411	•	151	70	172	127	400	•	•	49[3]	•	174	261
Nov.	125	13	184	156	•	•	52	•	1411	•	151	75	172	•	400	•	189	49	•	174	261
Dec.	125	13	184	156	•	•	52	160	1411	275	151	75	172	•	400	181	•	53	198	174	261
1928 Jan.	126	14	208	156	189	•	52	•	1411	•	151	75	172	127	400	•	•	53	•	174	261
Feb.	126	14	209	156	•	•	52	•	1411	•	151	75	172	•	400	•	188	53	•	174	261
March	126	14	209	156	•	•	52	•	1411	275	151	75	172	•	400	179	•	53	199	174	261
April	126	14	209	156	193	•	52	•	1411	•	151	75	172	127	400	•	•	56	•	174	261
May	126	14	209	156	•	•	52	•	1411	•	151	80	172	•	400	•	189	56	•	177	261
June	126	14	209	156	•	•	52	158	1430	275	151	80	172	•	400	179	•	56	199	177	261
July	126	14	210	156	193	•	52	•	1430	•	151	80	172	128	401	•	•	58	•	177	278
Aug.	126	14	210	156	•	•	52	•	1430	•	151	85	172	•	401	•	190	58	•	177	278
Sept.	126	14	210	156	•	•	52	•	1430	300	151	85	172	•	401	—	—	58	190	177	278
Oct.	126	14	211	156	193	•	52	•	1430	•	150	—	—	127	—	•	•	58	•	177	278

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1913 = 100. [3] New series.

The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Wage Rates and Retail Food Prices in Various Cities

The following tables give wage and price statistics in various cities for October 1928, in continuation of corresponding tables published in previous numbers of the *Review*. Information is given for 17 cities for both wages and prices, the figures, which relate as a rule to the beginning of the month, having been generally supplied to the International Labour Office by the Department of the Central Government or of the Municipality which compiles these data.

Table I gives money wages, generally based on rates fixed by collective agreements, of typical categories of adult workers in the building, engineering, furniture-making, and printing and bookbinding industries. The figures are calculated on the basis of 48 hours' work, generally at ordinary time rates. Cost-of-living bonuses and family allowances paid in certain cities are as far as possible included. The data are not in all cases strictly comparable. For some cities minimum rates are given, and the rates actually paid are in certain cases somewhat higher.

Table II gives average retail prices of the foodstuffs generally consumed by wage earners and their families. The data are not strictly comparable from city to city owing to possible differences in the quality or grade of the article quoted.

These statistics are primarily collected for the purpose of calculating the index numbers of real wages which appear in the *Review* at quarterly intervals.[1] They are, however, also of interest in showing changes in the level of wages and of food prices from month to month.

[1] See below, pages 106-109.

TABLE I. MONEY WAGES CALCULATED ON THE BASIS OF 48 HOURS' WORK AT ORDINARY TIME RATES IN OCTOBER 1928

Industry and occupation	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels	Copenhagen[1]	Dublin	Lodz	London	Madrid	Milan	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[3]	Prague	Rome	Stockholm[4]	Vienna	Warsaw
Building Industry:	Gulden	R. Mks.	Francs	Kroner	s. d.	Zloty	s. d.	Pesetas	Lire	Dollars	Francs	Dollars	Koruny	Lire	Kronor	Schillinge	Zloty
Bricklayers or masons	38.40	70.56	276.00	100.80	90 0	76.80	83 0	60 00	165.60	57.60	252.00	78.00	250.00	156.80	76.80	71.04	86.40
Carpenters	38.40	71.04	276.00	94.56	88 0	76.80	83 0	78 00	172.80	40.80	252.00	60.00	232.50	156.80	76.80	75.84	69.60
Joiners	38.40	—	276.00	79.68	88 0	—	83 0	84.00	160.80	40.80	252.00	60.00	—	146.40	76.80	60.48	—
Plumbers	38.40	76.32	264.00	84.48	89 0	—	83 0	64.50	—	45.60	252.00	55.20	—	144.00	66.24	57.52	—
Painters (general)	36.00	68.64	252.00	84.48	86 0	72.00	79 0	62 40	175.20	31.20	252.00	50.40	260.00	180.00	81.60	81.60	72.00
Labourers (general)	36.00	57.60	204.00	83.52	64 0	40.80	63 0	45.00	108.00	21.60	200.00	—	165.00	100.80	69.60	55.20	44.16
Engineering Trades:																	
Fitters	30.72	48.24	238.56	80.64	75 1	43.20	64 3	72.00	144.30	28.80	225.60	48.00	265.00	136.80	—	65.00	50.40
Ironmoulders (sand)	30.72	48.24	230.04	92.16	75 1	43.20	64 3	72.00	155.40	28.32	278.40	46.50	317.50	146.40	—	63.00	50.40
Patternmakers	30.72	48.24	247.20	87.84	77 1	43.20	68 10	80.00	—	33.60	278.40	48.00	345.00	—	—	59.00	50.40
Turners	30.72	48.24	245.28	—	75 1	43.20	64 3	78.00	156.90	28.80	235.20	38.40	270.00	136.80	—	60.00	50.40
Labourers	23.52	38.40	173.76	63.36	55 2	28.80	46 3	42.00	114.90	19.20	153.60	31.20	167.50	93.60	—	43.00	33.12
Furniture Trades:																	
Cabinet-makers	33.40	59.80	312.00	73.44	88 0	—	84 0	72.00	187.50	25.20	—	—	295.00	182.40	57.60	57.12	—
Labourers	—	50.60	—	—	60 0	—	—	42.00	132.60	16.80	—	—	150.00	93.60	51.84	36.48	—
Printing and Bookbinding Trades:																	
Hand compositors (book and job)	35.04	56.00	269.25	86.40	84 0	76.95	89 0	73.50	213.36	37.50	295.20	43.20	—	165.00	60.55	65.50	120.00
Machine compositors (book and job)	39.36	67.20	308.25	86.40	84 0	109.56	96 0	81 00	232.32	37.50	337.80	45.17	285.00	193.60	66.40	78.60	168.00
Machine minders	35.04	56.00	296.25	83.04	84 0	75.65	89 0	98 50	210.50	35 20	295.20	43.82	—	165.00	60.55	65.50	120.00
Bookbinders	35.04	52.32	293.25	84.96	84 0	75.65	80 0	70.50	213.36	37.00	295.20	42.00	212.50	155.00	55 20	54.00	—
Labourers	28.08	49.00	—	60.00	55 6	26.08	71 0[2]	48.00	143.00	—	261.20	—	187.50	118.80	49.60	43.50	57.12

[1] Average earnings. [2] Warehouse porters. [3] Figures for May 1928. [4] For certain occupations the figures are minimum rates fixed by collective agreements, and skilled workers are frequently paid at higher rates.

TABLE II. AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES PER KILOGRAM[1] OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOOD IN OCTOBER 1928

Commodity	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels	Copenhagen	Dublin	Lodz	London	Madrid	Milan	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[2]	Prague	Rome	Stockholm	Vienna	Warsaw
	Gulden	R. Mks.	Francs	Kroner	Pence	Zloty	Pence	Pesetas	Lire	Cents	Francs	Cents	Koruny	Lire	Kronor	Schillinge	Zloty
Bread																	
White	0.25	0.76	2.21	0.83	5.5	—	4.4	0.65	1.85	17.0	1.95	19.0	3.27	1.90	0.73	1 65	—
Black or rye	0.18	0.44	2.15	0.24	—	0.53	—	—	—	—	—	—	2.95		0.74	0.67	0.60
Flour (wheaten)	0.29	0.55	2.95	0.35	5.2	0.84	5.2	0.80	2.34	12.3	2.95	11.2	3.84	2.20	0.40	0.68	0.94
Butter																	
Fresh	2.38	4 30	33.18	3.87	46.3	7.59	49.6	5 60	16.75	94.2	28.95	134.9	28 16	14 50	—	6.40	7.82
Salt	—	4.00	31.40	1.56	39.7	—	48.7	3 20	—	—	—	—	—	9 50	3.63	—	—
Margarine	1.20	1.86	12.17		17.6	—	15.4	5.00	—	—	10.20	63.5	15.46	11.00	1.40	2.80	—
Beef (home produce)																	
Ribs	1.50	2.20	24.00	2.43	35.3	2.98	40.6	4.20	12.25	64.4	18 45	96.4	16.08	6.25	2 14	3.20	3.25
Thin flank	1.10		12.43	1.45	22.1		16.8	3.30	5.40	31.1	9.00	82.2	13,51	5.50	1.62		
Beef (chilled or frozen)																	
Ribs	1.20	—	17.33	—	—	—	24.3	4 00	8.70	—	—	—	—	—	—	2.50	—
Thin flank	0.80	1.40	7.50	—	—	—	10.6	3.00	2.20	—	—	—	—	—	—		—
Mutton (home produce)																	
Leg	2.20	2.80	17.75	—	35.3	3.16	38.6	4 00	—	63.1	22.17	94.8	12.93	—	2.39	4.20	2.97
Breast	1.20	2.50	8.75	—	27.1		18.7	2.80	—	—	8.70	—		—	—		
Mutton (frozen)																	
Leg	—	—	13.00	—	—	—	25 8	—	—	—	13.80	—	—	—	—	—	—
Breast	—	—	5.75	1.48	—	—	10 4	—	—	—	4.50	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bacon	1.00	2.70	16.94	2.62	27.1	3.60	34 6	3.20	9.37	92.2	14.35	97.7	—	8.00	2.66	4 00	3.50
Potatoes	0.08	0.10	0.90	0.16	1.9	0.18	2.4	0.45	0.88	3.9	1.35	5.1	0.87	0 83	0.15	0.28	0.19
Sugar (white granulated)	0.49	0.60	3.55	0.56	7.2	1.56	6.8	1.60	6.58	15.9	5.10	14.6	6.37	6 75	0.50	0.80	1.60
Coffee	1.30	6.70	25.56	3.27	61.7	8.20	—	9.00	31.00	139.4	25.00	96.8	48.37	29.40	4.00	10.00	10.53
Coffee substitute	—	0.54	—	—	—	2 80	—	3.50	14.60	—	7.13	—	4.17	11.70	1.60	1.74	2.64
Tea	3.00	9.60	36.07	7.15	44.1	20 00	48.5	18.00	—	162.9	43.00	157.4	—	63.00	—	20.00	28.00
Cheese	1.40	1.50	—	1.81	35.3	1.90	31.5	5.00	19.95	78.1	19.80	94.4	6.41	14.00	1.83	5.60	2.22
Milk (unskimmed)	0.18	0.33	2.10	0.34	6.2	0.45	6.2	0.80	1.20	10.6	1.60	11.5	2.15	1.50	0.26	0.52	0.52
Eggs (not new laid or preserved)	0.08	0.14	1.29	0.15	2.7	0 22	2.2	0.20	0 65	4.8	1.13	4.6	0.91	0 57	0.14	0.20	0.21
Rice	0.25	0.68	5.45	0.78	6.6	1.18	6.2	0.80	1.60	25.4	4.45	23.2	4.45	1.83	0.51	0.98	1.25

[1] Except for milk (per litre) and eggs (per unit).

[2] Prices for September.

Comparison of Real Wages in Various Cities

Statistics for October 1928

Table I below gives index numbers of real wages in some of the principal cities of the world for the month of October 1928 (as a rule, the beginning of the month), in continuation of a corresponding table published in this *Review* for October-November, which gave figures for July 1928. These index numbers are calculated from returns of wages and of retail prices received by the International Labour Office from the competent authorities in the different countries, and published each month in the *Review*.

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF COMPARATIVE REAL WAGES IN VARIOUS CITIES IN OCTOBER 1928[1]

(Base : London, October 1928 = 100)

City	Index numbers based primarily on quantities of food consumption in :						General average index numbers	
	Belgium and France	Central Europe	Great Britain	Southern Europe	Scandinavian countries	Overseas countries	Based on food only	With allowance for rent
Amsterdam	82	84	77	82	92	83	83	83
Berlin	62	75	66	66	81	72	70	65
Brussels	50	50	52	50	55	49	51	55
Copenhagen	92	116	101	98	127	112	108	107
Dublin	95	101	101	95	100	98	98	107
Lodz	43	52	42	46	55	49	48	53
London	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Madrid	51	51	49	54	53	52	52	—
Milan	46	52	44	50	53	48	49	48
Ottawa	140	157	155	144	167	159	154	152
Paris	59	58	53	57	63	55	58	—
Philadelphia	174	191	185	179	215	191	189	189
Prague	45	48	44	48	51	48	47	50
Rome[2]	43	42	40	47	46	46	46	41
Stockholm[3]	79	78	87	86	102	95	88	86
Vienna	36	46	39	40	53	45	43	48
Warsaw	38	47	36	41	49	43	42	43

[1] These index numbers are subject to the important reservations indicated on page 108.

[2] The low figures for Rome may be accounted for in part by the differences in the items of food consumption in the Southern European countries from those ordinarily consumed in most of the other countries included in the table.

[3] The figures are based on wages in the building, furniture-making, and printing industries only. For other cities, the metal industry is also included.

If comparisons are made between the index numbers given in table I above and corresponding numbers previously published, it should be noted that differences between the index numbers for any city at different dates may be due either to changes in the level of real wages in that city between those dates or to changes in the level of real wages in London. The index numbers thus show only proportionate changes in the levels of real wages in relation to those in London. In order to avoid the difficulty in comparison due to changes in the level of real wages in London, table II is given showing index numbers of comparative real wages in various cities on the basis of real wages in London in July 1924 (= 100).

TABLE II. INDEX NUMBERS OF COMPARATIVE REAL WAGES IN VARIOUS CITIES BASED ON COST OF FOOD ONLY[1]

(Base : London, July 1924 = 100)

City	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928			
	July	July	July	July	Jan.	April	July	Oct.
Amsterdam	89	83	92	92	84	90	88	89
Berlin	55	63	70	71	68	75	77	75
Brussels	59	54	48	50	47	52	57	55
Copenhagen	—	93	114	112	112	114	—	115
Dublin	—	—	100	108	104	106	111	106
Lisbon	32	31	35	33	31	—	31	—
Lodz	—	54	44	44	48	43	49	51
London	100	99	102	106	103	106	110	108
Madrid	57	53	57	57	57	57	60	56
Milan	46	46	48	55	—	52	51	53
Ottawa	172	162	152	166	166	164	175	165
Paris	73	—	—	56	61	61	61	62
Philadelphia	213	180	169	189	194	195	197	202
Prague	56	48	51	49	—	49	49	51
Riga	—	42	48	51	—	—	—	—
Rome	46	45	44	46	47	45	48	47
Stockholm	85	78	89	98	92	93	92	93
Sydney	—	138	133	—	—	—	—	—
Tallinn	—	36	42	48	41	42	44	—
Vienna	47	42	44	43	48	47	47	46
Warsaw	—	43	46	39	45	41	46	45

[1] Owing to a slight change in the composition of the baskets of provisions used for Prague, Stockholm, Vienna, and Lisbon, the indexes from 1925 onwards are not strictly comparable with those for July 1924.
The notes to table I apply also to table II.

The method of calculating these index numbers was fully described in the *Review* for October 1924 and may be summarised here. The average level of the weekly wage rates in each of the capital cities is computed. For this purpose an unweighted average of the rates

supplied is taken. The cost of a " basket of provisions " in each of the same capital cities is then computed from the returns of retail prices. It is not possible, owing to the widely varying importance of the different articles, to take an unweighted average of the retail prices ; the prices are therefore weighted according to the importance of the different commodities as determined by family budget enquiries. For this purpose six different series of weights are used, based primarily on family budget enquiries in Great Britain, Belgium, Germany, Sweden, Italy, and the United States of America. The number of times the average wage will purchase each of the six baskets of provisions is computed for each city, and the resulting figures are then converted to index numbers on the basis of London = 100. Thus an identical series of calculations is made for each city, using the same wage and price data, but on the assumption that the foods are consumed in the proportions shown by the six different family budget enquiries. An arithmetical average of these six index numbers is then taken, which gives the general average index numbers of real wages based on the purchasing power of the wages over the current items of food consumption.

It must be emphasised that the comparative levels of real wages as shown by these index numbers are subject to the important reservations made in the *Review* for October 1924. In the first place the calculations are based on the wages of a few categories of workers only, and secondly, they are based on the assumption that the whole of the worker's wage is spent on the foodstuffs for which prices are obtained. From the ideal point of view a group of commodities should be formed including items not only of food but also of heating and lighting, clothing, house accommodation, and various miscellaneous items of consumption, so that the purchasing power of the wages might be measured by budgets comprising all the main items of current consumption weighted according to their relative importance.

In practice, it is impossible to construct such an ideal unit of measurement owing to differences in the items consumed in the different countries, or, where similar items are found in the consumption budgets, to differences in their quantity and quality. A further difficulty is the lack of price data for many of the items. Consequently it has been found necessary to limit the calculation to a list of those articles of food which are common items in the consumption of working-class families in the countries covered. This limitation to the principal articles of food may diminish the value of the results, but it should be remembered that the expenditure on food constitutes the great part of family outgo, often reaching two-thirds of the expenditure. The effect of the exclusion of clothing, fuel and light, and rent from the calculations depends on the extent to which the relations existing between the level of the prices of these items and the level of food prices differs from country to country. In the case of fuel and light and clothing, the effect is probably small. In the case of rent, however, owing to the operation of rent restriction legislation, the levels of rent and the proportion spent on rent in different countries differ widely. Information has been obtained as to the percentage of the total expenditure which goes in rent, and this information has been used to correct approximately the index numbers based

on food alone. These corrected index numbers are given in the last column of table I.

In spite of the numerous reservations which it is necessary to make, it is thought that these figures may serve as a rough indication of the relative level of real wages of adult male workers in certain groups of occupations in the different cities.

Cost of Food in Different Cities

The following table, in continuation of figures given in previous numbers of the *Review*, shows the cost of the baskets of provisions in the different cities in terms of gold. For this purpose, the average cost of each of the six baskets of provisions used for the calculation of the real wage index numbers is converted into dollars at the average rate of exchange ruling in the month of September 1928. The cities are given in order of increasing cost.

The differences, though mainly the result of differences in prices of the foodstuffs in the various cities, are to some extent due to the fact that the prices quoted are not invariably for the same quality of article, and also due to factors affecting the rate of exchange.

City	$	City	$
Brussels	1.22	Dublin	1.72
Lodz	1.25	Berlin	1.76
Prague	1.36	Stockholm	1.79
Warsaw	1.38	Vienna	1.80
Amsterdam	1.45	Copenhagen	1.83
Paris	1.54	Ottawa	1.90
Rome	1.56	Madrid	1.91
Milan	1.61	Philadelphia	2.20
London	1.64		

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Recent Labour Legislation

The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French, and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used.[1] Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1927

AUSTRALIA

Victoria

* Regulations under the Factories and Shops Acts: Alterations of Clauses 11 and 12 of chapter 1 (of the Regulations of 20 February and 27 November 1923). Dated 8 February 1927. (Victoria Government Gazette, 9 February 1927, p. 666.)

Additional Regulations under the Scaffolding Inspection Act 1922 (No. 3269): Light Duty Swinging Scaffolding Regulations. Dated 31 March 1927. (Victoria Government Gazette, 6 April 1927, p. 1476.)

Addition to Regulations under the Scaffolding Inspection Act 1922 (No. 3269). Dated 28 April 1927. (Victoria Government Gazette, 4 May 1927, p. 1629.)

Regulations under the Factories and Shops Acts: paragraphs regarding guarding of belts or ropes revoked and remade. Dated 6 September 1927. (Victoria Government Gazette, 14 September 1927, p. 2778.)

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[1] *List of abbreviations:* A. N. = Amtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für Soziale Verwaltung; B. G Bl. = Bundesgesetzblatt; B. I. R. S. = Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales; B. M. T. = Bulletin du Ministère du Travail; B O. M. T. = Boletín Oficial del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria; C. S. R. = Commonwealth Statutory Rules; D. R A. = Deutscher Reichsanzeiger; Drj. Vest. = Drjaven Vestnik; E. K. N. = Ergatiké kai Koinoniké Nomothesia (pararténa B') (published by the Ministry of National Economy); Eph. Kyb. = Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Teuchos proton), G. U. = Gazzetta Ufficiale; I. N. K. T. = Izvestia Narodnogo Komissariata Trooda; J. O. = Journal Officiel: Lik. = Likumu un Ministru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums; R. Arb. Bl. = Reichsarbeitsblatt; R. d. T. = Revue du Travail; R. G. Bl. = Reichsgesetzblatt; S. R. & O. = Statutory Rules and Orders; Sb. z. a n. = Sbirka zákonu a narizeni (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslovak Republic); L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office.

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Regulations under the Boilers Inspection Acts prescribing the fees payable for inspecting boilers. Dated 21 December 1927. (Victoria Government Gazette, 30 December 1927, p. 4062.)

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BRITISH HONDURAS

An Ordinance to regulate the right to search for, mine and work minerals, and for other purposes relating thereto. No. 7. Assented to 12 April 1927. (Ordinances, etc., 1927, p. 33.)

An Ordinance to amend the Fraudulent Labourers (Advances) Ordinance. Chapter 105 of the Consolidated Laws, 1924. No. 12. Assented to 29 June 1927. (Ordinances, etc., 1927, p. 77.)

COSTA RICA

Decreto No. 44 : [reformanse los articulos 27, 28, 29, 30 y 31 del Reglamento de la ley sobre Reparación por Accidentes del Trabajo, a que se refieren los decretos No. 2 de 17 de enero y 26 de 17 de setiembre de este año]. 14 de noviembre de 1927. (La Gaceta, 1927, No. 266, p. 1757.)

[Decree No. 44 to amend sections 27, 28, 29, 30, and 31 of the Regulations under the Industrial Accidents Compensation Act, issued by Decrees No. 2 of 17 January and No. 26 of 17 September of the current year. Dated 14 November 1927.]

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SIERRA LEONE

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Northern Ireland

The Unemployment Insurance (Insurance Year) Regulations (Northern Ireland), 1928, dated 15 June 1928, made by the Ministry of Labour for Northern Ireland under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O. of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 73.)

The Unemployment Insurance (Exempt Persons) Regulations (Northern Ireland), 1928, dated 27 June 1928, made by the Ministry of Labour for Northern Ireland under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O. of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 61.)

The Unemployment Insurance (Periods of Incapacity) Regulations (Northern Ireland), 1928, dated 27 June 1928, made by the Ministry of Labour for Northern Ireland under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O. of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 74.)

The Unemployment Insurance (Review of Claims) Regulations (Northern Ireland), 1928, dated 27 June 1928, made by the Ministry of Labour for Northern Ireland under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O. of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 75.)

The Unemployment Insurance (Payment of Travelling Expenses) Regulations (Northern Ireland), 1928, dated 27 June 1928, made by the Ministry of Labour for Northern Ireland under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O. of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 76.)

The National Health and Unemployment Insurance (Stamps) Regulations (Northern Ireland), dated 9 July 1928, made by the Ministry of Labour for Northern Ireland under section 129 (11) of the National Health Insurance Act, 1924, as respects health insurance stamps and as respects unemployment insurance stamps, under section 16 of the Unemployment Insurance Act (Northern Ireland), 1928. (S. R. & O. of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 81.)

GREECE

Act No. 3600 to ratify and amend the Legislative Decree of 7 October 1927 respecting elementary agricultural education. Dated 5 July 1928. (Eph. Kyb., 1928, No. 121, p. 895.)

GUATEMALA

Decreto número 967 [establecer, bajo la dependencia del Ministerio de Agricultura, una Sección administrativa que se denominará de Colonización Agraria, Repatriación e Inmigración]. 19 de enero de 1928. (El Guatemalteco, 23 de enero de 1928, Vol. CXIX, No. 35, p. 193.)

[Decree No. 967 (to set up in the Ministry of Agriculture an administrative section entitled "Land Settlement, Repatriation, and Immigration Section"). Dated 19 January 1928.]

Decreto número 968: Ley Reglamentaria de Educación Pública. 9 de febrero de 1928. (El Guatemalteco, 10 de febrero de 1928, Vol. CXIX, No. 51, p. 277; 11 de febrero de 1928, Vol. CXIX, No. 52, p. 289.)

[Decree No. 968, to issue the Education Act. Dated 9 February 1928.]

Decreto número 969 [se reforma el artículo 36 de la Ley de Extranjería]. 15 de febrero de 1928. (El Guatemalteco, 22 de febrero de 1928, Vol. CXIX, No. 61, p. 361.)

[Decree No. 969 (to amend section 36 of the Aliens Act). Dated 15 February 1928.]

Decreto número 1536 [se aprueba el Decreto gubernativo número 969, de fecha 15 de febrero próximo pasado]. 1 de mayo de 1928. (El Guatemalteco, 2 de julio de 1928, Vol. CXX, No. 69, p. 513.)

[Decree No. 1536 (to ratify Governmental Decree No. 969 of 15 February last). Dated 1 May 1928.]

Reglamento para el debido cumplimiento del Decreto gubernativo número 967. 29 de febrero de 1928. (El Guatemalteco, 15 de marzo de 1928, Vol. CXIX, No. 80, p. 521.)

[Regulations for the execution of Governmental Decree No. 967 (of 19 January 1928, setting up a Land Settlement, Repatriation and Immigration Section in the Ministry of Agriculture). Dated 29 February 1928.]

Refórmase el Reglamento de Barberías aprobado por acuerdo de 28 de noviembre de 1927. 27 de marzo de 1928. (El Guatemalteco, 10 de abril de 1928, Vol. CXIX, No. 99, p. 693.)

[Amendment of Regulations approved on 28 November 1927 respecting barbers' shops. Dated 27 March 1928.]

Decreto número 1535 [se aprueba el Decreto número 950, dictado por el Ejecutivo con fecha 31 de agosto de 1927]. 1 de mayo de 1928. (El Guatemalteco, 2 de julio de 1928, Vol. CXX, No. 69, p. 513.)

[Decree No. 1535 (to ratify Decree No. 950 issued by the Executive on 31 August 1927). Dated 1 May 1928. (Temporary restriction of immigration of Turks ,natives of Palestine and Lebanon, Arabs, and Syrians.)]

Decreto número 1547 : Ley de Responsabilidades. 25 de mayo de 1928. (El Guatemalteco, 21 de junio de 1928, Vol. CXX, No. 61, p. 449.)

[Decree No. 1547 : Official Duties and Liabilities Act. (Public employees.) Dated 25 May 1928.]

Decreto número 1554 [se aprueba el Decreto gubernativo número 967 del año en corso]. 29 de mayo de 1928. (El Guatemalteco, 20 de junio de 1928, Vol. CXX, No. 60, p. 441.)

[Decree No. 1554 (to ratify Governmental Decree No. 967 of the current year). Dated 29 May 1928. (Land Settlement, immigration, etc.)]

INDIA

* An Act further to amend the Indian Mines Act, 1923, for certain purposes. No. XIII of 1928. Assented to 20 September 1928. (Gazette of India, 1928, No. 39, Part IV, p. 30.)

* An Act to amend the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1928, for a certain purpose. No. XV of 1928. Assented to 25 September 1928. (Gazette of India, 1928, No. 39, Part IV, p. 32.)

An Act to amend certain enactments and to repeal certain other enactments. No. XVIII of 1928. Assented to 25 September 1928. (Gazette of India, 1928, No. 39, Part IV, p. 35.)

[Amends *inter alia* sections 217 and 227 of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, No. XXI of 1923.]

IRISH FREE STATE

National Health Insurance (Collection of Contributions) Amendment Regulations, 1928. (No date.) (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 39.)

National Health Insurance. Insurance Committees Amendment Regulations, 1928. (No date.) (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 41.)

Trade Boards (District Trade Committees) Regulations, 1928. Dated 31 July 1928. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 53.)

ITALY

* Regio decreto-legge 14 giugno 1928, n. 1647. Tutela della vita umana in mare. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2088.) (G. U., 1928, No. 173, p. 3454.)

[Royal Legislative Decree No. 1647 : safety of life at sea. Dated 14 June 1928.]

Regio decreto-legge 17 giugno 1928, n. 1314. Passaggio delle scuole e degli istituti d'istruzione tecnica-professionale dalla dipendenza del Ministero dell' economia nazionale a quella del Ministero della pubblica istruzione. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1743.) (G. U., 1928, No. 146, p. 2794.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1314, to transfer technical and trade schools and educational institutions from the Ministry of National Economy to the Ministry of Education. Dated 17 June 1928.]

Regio decreto 3 agosto 1928, n. 2139. Facoltà al Ministro per gli affari esteri di derogare alla disposizione di cui al comma *b*) dell' art. 2 del R. decreto 14 marzo 1909, n. 130, relativa al trasporto degli emigranti. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2593.) (G. U., 1928, No. 229, p. 4714.)

[Royal Decree No. 2139, to authorise the Minister of Foreign Affairs to permit exceptions to the provisions of section 2 (*b*) of Royal Decree No. 130 of 14 March 1909, respecting the transportation of emigrants. Dated 3 August 1928.]

JAPAN

Ordinance No. 30 to amend the Regulations for the employment and relief of miners. Dated 1 September 1928.

LITHUANIA

Pavyzdinis ligoniu kasu statutas. (Vyriausybés Zinios, [25 August] 1928, No. 282, p. 1.)

[Model rules for sick funds. (No date.)]

MOROCCO

Dahir du 4 juillet 1928/15 moharrem 1347, portant création d'un Office des familles nombreuses françaises. (Bulletin officiel, 1928, No. 821, p. 1922.)

Dahir du 4 juillet 1928/15 moharrem 1347 concernant les habitations salubres et à bon marché. (Bulletin officiel du Maroc, 1928, No. 821, p. 1924.)

Dahir du 7 juillet 1928/19 moharrem 1347 portant modification de l'article 388 du dahir du 12 août 1913/9 ramadan 1331 formant code des obligations et des contrats. (Bulletin officiel du Maroc, 1928, No. 826, p. 2241.)

NETHERLANDS

Besluit van den 21sten Juli 1928, tot wijziging van het Koninklijk Besluit van 18 April 1921 (Staatsblad no. 678) tot vaststelling van de regelen nopens de verdeeling der in artikel 19, eerste lid, der Wet op de Rijksverzekeringsbank (Staatsblad 1920, no. 780) bedoelde kosten, laatstelijk gewijzigd bij het Koninklijk Besluit van 15 Juli 1925 (Staatsblad no. 333). (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 304.)

[Decree to amend the Royal Decree of 18 April 1921 (Staatsblad, No. 678), to issue rules for the allocation of the expenses mentioned in section 19 (1) of the Act concerning the State Insurance Bank (Staatsblad, 1920, No. 780), as last amended by the Royal Decree of 15 July 1925 (Staatsblad, No. 333). Dated 21 July 1928.]

Besluit van den 21sten Augustus 1928, bepalende de bekendmaking in het Staatsblad van het ontwerp-verdrag van Washington, betreffende den leftijd waarop kinderen mogen worden toegelaten tot het verrichten van arbeid in nijverheidsondernemingen (Staatsblad 1922, No. 369). (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 341.)

[Decree to promulgate the Draft Convention adopted at Washington, fixing the minimum age for the admission of children to industrial employment. Dated 21 August 1928.]

Besluit van den 15den September 1928, tot wijziging van het Koninklijk Besluit van 15 Juli 1922 (Staatsblad no. 451) tot vaststelling van een algemeenen maatregel van bestuur als bedoeld in het eerste, vierde en vijfde lid van artikel 111 der Ongevallenwet 1921, zooals dat besluit laatstelijk is gewijzigd bij Koninklijk Besluit van 25 Mei 1926 (Staatsblad no. 152). (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 366.)

[Decree to amend the Royal Decree of 15 July 1922 (Staatsblad No. 451) issuing administrative regulations as provided in section 111 (1), (4), and (5) of the Accidents Act, 1921, as last amended by the Royal Decree of 25 May 1926 (Staatsblad, No. 152). Dated 15 September 1928.]

NORWAY

Kongelig resolusjon. Den i §§ 1 nr. 2 a og 10 nr. 1 a i lov om sykeforsikring omhandlede inntektsgrense for henholdsvis pliktig og frivillig forsikring fastsettes inntil videre til kr. 5.100.00. 17. aug. 1928. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1928, No. 33, p. 491.)

[Royal Resolution to provide that the income limit for voluntary and compulsory insurance referred to in sections 1 (2*a*) and 10 (1*a*) of the Sickness Insurance Act shall be fixed until further notice at 5,100 kroner. Dated 17 August 1928.]

Kongelig resolusjon, hvorved bestemmes at lov nr. 11 av 22 juni 1928 um brigde i lov um ulukketrygding for fiskarar fra 10 desember 1920 med tilleggslover skal tre i kraft fra og med 1 november 1928. 7. septbr. 1928. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1928, No. 34, p. 509.)

[Royal Resolution to provide that Act No. 11 of 22 June 1928 to amend the Act of 10 December 1920 respecting accident compensation for fishermen and the supplementary Acts shall come into operation on 1 November 1928. Dated 7 September 1928.]

PERU

Ley de 1º de Enero de 1928 sobre alquileres. (Crónica Mensual del Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, 1928, No. 125, p. 2439.)

[Act respecting rents. Dated 1 January 1928.]

Ley núm. 6207. Reservando exclusivamente para las naves de bandera nacional el tráfico de cabotaje en el litoral peruano. 14 de Mayo de 1928. (El Peruano, 1928, No. 128, p. 597.)

[Act No. 6207, to reserve coasting trade in Peruvian waters exclusively to vessels under the national flag. Dated 14 May 1928.]

POLAND

* Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 22 marca 1928 r. o godzinach handlu i godzinach otwarcia zakladow handlowych i niektórych przemyslowych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 38, poz. 364, p. 803.)

[Order of the President respecting the hours for business and hours of opening of commercial establishments and certain industrial establishments. Dated 22 March 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 22 marca 1928 r. o organizacji i zakresie dzialania wladz marynarki handlowej. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 38, poz. 366, p. 812.)

[Order of the President respecting the organisation and competence of the authorities for the Merchant Service. Dated 22 March 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 22 marca 1928 r. w sprawie zmiany niektórych postanowich ustawy z dnia 17 lutego 1922 r. o pánstwowej sluzbie cywilnej. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 38, poz. 367, p. 814.)

[Order of the President to amend certain provisions of the Act of 17 February 1922 respecting the civil service. Dated 22 March 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 22 marca 1928 r. w sprawie zmiany niektórych postanowien ustawy z dnia 17 lutego 1922 r. o organizacji wladz dyscyplinarnych i postepowaniu dyscyplinarnem przeciwko i funkcjonarjuszom pánstwowym. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 38, poz. 369, p. 815.)

[Order of the President to amend certain provisions of the Act of 17 February 1922, respecting the organisation of disciplinary authorities and disciplinary procedure against salaried civil servants. Dated 22 March 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 22 marca 1928 r. w sprawie zmiany niektórych przepisów o uposazeniu funkcjonarjuszów panstwowych i wojska oraz sedziów i prokuratorów. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 38, poz. 370, p. 816.)

[Order of the President to amend certain provisions respecting the remuneration of salaried civil servants and military employees and of judges and public prosecutors. Dated 22 March 1928.]

Obwieszczenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 21 maja 1928, r. o sprostowaniu bledu w rozporzadzeniu Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 22 marca 1928 r. o godzinach handlu i godzinach otwarcia zakladow handlowych i niektórych przemyslowych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 57, poz. 545, p. 1212.)

[Proclamation of the President to correct an error in his Order of 22 March 1928, respecting the hours of business and of opening for commercial establishments and certain industrial establishments. Dated 21 May 1928.]

PORTUGAL

Carta de Confirmação e Ratificação do projecto de Convenção adoptado na primeira sessão da Conferência Internacional do Trabalho, realizada em Washington de 29 de Outubro a 29 de Novembro de 1919, limitando a oito horas por dia e a quarenta e oito horas por semana o numero de horas de trabalho nos estabelecimentos industriais. 25 de Agosto de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 207, p. 1840.)

[Charter of Confirmation and Ratification of the Draft Convention adopted at the First Session of the International Labour Conference held in Washington from 29 October to 29 November 1919, limiting the hours of work in industrial undertakings to eight in the day and forty-eight in the week. Dated 25 August 1928.]

Carta de Confirmação e Ratificação do projecto de Convenção adoptado na terceira sessão da Conferência Internacional do Trabalho, realizada em Genebra de 25 de Outubro a 21 de Novembro de 1921, relativo à aplicação do descanso semanal nos estabelecimentos industriais. 25 de Agosto de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 207, p. 1846.)

[Charter of Confirmation and Ratification of the Draft Convention adopted at the Third Session of the International Labour Conference held in Geneva from 25 October to 21 November 1921, concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings. Dated 25 August 1928.]

Decreto n. 15:915 — Ratifica o Acôrdo entre Portugal e a Alemanha sôbre o reconhecimento reciproco dos certificados de Bordo Livre. 1 de Setembro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 201, p. 1791.)

[Decree No. 15915, to ratify the Agreement between Germany and Portugal respecting the mutual recognition of load-line certificates. Dated 1 September 1928.]

Decreto n. 15:917 — Aprova a Carta Orgânica da colonia de Angola. 1 de Setembro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 201, p. 1793.)

[Decree No. 15917 to approve the Constitution of the Colony of Angola. Dated 1 September 1928.]

Decreto n. 16:000 — Constitui na Direcção da Marinha um conselho administrativo. Extingue os conselhos administrativos das Direcções da Marinha Mercante, das Pescarias, das Construcções Civis e do Fundo de Protecção à Marinha Mercante. 28 de Setembro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 228, p. 2039.)

[Decree No. 16000, to create an Executive Board for the General Directorate of Shipping, and to abolish the Executive Boards of the Directorates of Merchant Shipping, Fisheries and Shipbuilding and of the Merchant Service Welfare Fund. Dated 28 September 1928.]

Decreto n. 16:001 — Estabelece a penalidade a aplicar ao pessoal português de assistência aos emigrantes portugueses embarcado nos navios estrangeiros, em virtude das disposições do decreto n. 13:213, que delinquir durante as viagens e não fôr chamado a bordo à responsabilidade pela autoridade idônea. 4 de Outubro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 229, p. 2041.)

[Decree No. 16001, to fix the penalty to be imposed on Portuguese officials travelling on foreign vessels for the assistance of Portuguese emigrants under Decree No. 13213 (of 4 March 1927), in the event of the commission by the said officials during the voyage of offences for which proceedings are not taken against them on board by the competent authority. Dated 4 October 1928.]

PORTUGUESE COLONIES

Angola

Portaria n. 150: Determina a nova edição do Diploma Orgânico de Crédito Agricola e de Colonização de Angola. 13 de Julho de 1928. (Boletim Oficial da colonia de Angola, 1928, No. 28, p. 461.)

[Order No. 150, to provide for the republication of the Decree respecting the organisation of credits for agriculture and land settlement in Angola. Dated 13 July 1928.]

RUMANIA

Decizie Ministerului Muncii, Cooperatiunii si Asigurarilor Sociale No. 29.870: Orariul pentru magazinele de flori din Capitala. 31 Julie 1928. (Monitorul Oficial, 1928, No. 171, p. 6872.)

[Order No. 29870 of the Ministry of Labour, Co-operation and Social Insurance, respecting the hours of opening for florists' shops in the Capital. Dated 31 July 1928.]

SERB-CROAT-SLOVENE KINGDOM

Decree respecting the administration of the Order of 26 November 1927 respecting employment exchanges. Dated 10 July 1928. (Sluzbene Novine, 1928, No. 183-LXI.)

Decree of the Minister of Social Affairs to vary the salary classification for the pension insurance of salaried employees in Slovenia and Dalmatia. Dated 15 August 1928. (Sluzbene Novine, 1928, No. 191-LXIII.)

Regulations for the establishment of a pension fund for the staff of the Directorate of Inland Navigation. Dated 24 August 1928. (Sluzbene Novine, 1928, No. 207-LXVII.)

SPAIN

Real orden organizando los servicios de la Subdirección de Obras Sociales de la Dirección general de Acción Social y Emigración. 27 de Agosto de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 247, p. 1284.)

[Royal Order to organise the services of the Sub-Directorate of Social Work in the General Directorate of Social Work and Emigration. Dated 27 August 1928.]

Real orden dictando reglas para la obtención de los auxilios que el Estado dispensa a las entidades cuyos estatutos disponen en favor de sus socios el pago de indemnizaciones por paro forzoso, con arreglo a lo prevenido en el Real decreto de 27 de Abril de 1923. 24 de Septiembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 269, p. 1740.)

[Royal Order to issue rules for the granting of subsidies by the State to associations whose rules provide for the payment to their members of benefit in case of involuntary unemployment, in accordance with the provisions of the Decree of 27 April 1923. Dated 28 September 1928.]

Real decreto derogando en su totalidad el Estatuto de Enseñanza Mercantil aprobado por Real decreto de 28 de Noviembre de 1925, y disponiendo que para el próximo curso de 1928-1929 siga rigiendo en todas las Escuelas de Comercio el Real decreto de 31 de Agosto de 1922. 29 de Septiembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 277, p. 68.)

[Royal Decree to repeal the Commercial Education Code approved by the Royal Decree of 28 November 1925, and to provide that the Royal Decree of 31 August 1922 shall apply to all commercial schools during the session 1928-1929. Dated 29 September 1928.]

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

Notification No. 940 under Ordinance No. 197 (Labour) to amend Rule No. 1 of the Rules published as Gazette Notification No. 1062 in the Gazette of 13 June 1924, as amended by Notification No. 1307, published in the Gazette of 30 July 1926, by deleting the first paragraph and substituting therefor the following: Deputy Controllers of Labour may perform all the duties and exercise all the powers of the Controller under this Ordinance except as to sections 6, 27 (3), 35, 36, 126 (2), 129, 148, 149, 191, 196. Dated 30 January 1928. (Straits Settlements Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. LXIII, No. 34, p. 811.)

An Ordinance to restrict, in certain circumstances, the immigration of labourers into the Colony and to provide for the removal from the Colony of prohibited immigrant labourers. No. 11 of 1928. Assented to 30 May 1928. (Straits Settlements Government Gazette, 1928, No. 39, Vol. LXIII, p. 910.)

SWEDEN

Kungl. Maj:ts kungörelse angaende undantag för medborgare i Cuba fran vissa bestämmelser i lagen den 17 Juni 1916 (nr 235) om försäkring för olycksfall i arbete. Den 24 Augusti 1928. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1928, No. 331, p. 965.)

[Royal Notification to exempt citizens of Cuba from certain provisions of the Act of 17 June 1916 (No. 235) respecting insurance against industrial accidents. Dated 24 August 1928.]

SWITZERLAND

Zurich

* Gesetz über die Arbeitslosenversicherung. Vom 20. Mai 1928.

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

An Ordinance to amend the Prevention of Accidents Ordinance. No. 11. Dated 30 May 1928.

UGANDA

An Ordinance to make Provision for Procedure in Civil Courts. No. 249. Dated 5 May 1928. (Official Gazette of the Uganda Protectorate, 1928, Vol. XXI, No. 8A, p. 171.)

An Ordinance to amend the Asiatic Widows' and Orphans' Pension Ordinance. No. 8 of 1928. Assented to 5 May 1928. (Official Gazette Extraordinary of the Uganda Protectorate, 1928, Vol. XXI, No. 8A, p. 201.)

URUGUAY

Ley. Se declaran comprendidos en la ley que creó la Caja de Jubilaciones de Empleados y Obreros de Servicios Públicos a unos empleados y obreros de Sociedades Anónimas y similares. 6 de Agosto de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 6652, p. 387-A.)

[Act to provide that certain wage-earning and salaried employees of joint-stock and similar companies shall be subject to the Act (of 6 October 1919) which set up the pension fund for wage-earning and salaried employees in the public service. Dated 6 August 1928.]

Resolución. Se aprueba un Reglamento de subsidios a otorgarse al personal obrero de los Talleres de Obras Públicas. 11 de Septiembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 6676, p. 673-A.)

[Resolution to approve the regulations for the (unemployment) benefit to be granted to wage-earning employees on public works. Dated 11 September 1928.]

Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

League of Nations. Permanent Mandates Commission. *Minutes of the Thirteenth Session held at Geneva 12-29 June 1928. Including the Report of the Commission to the Council.* Publications VI. A. Mandates 1928. VI. A. 9. Geneva, 1928. 238 pp.

—— **Saar Territory.** *Jahres-Bericht der Bergbehörde und Gewerberäte des Saargebietes für 1927.* Mit Tabellen. 61 pp.

Permanent Court of International Justice. *Interpretation of the Greco-Turkish Agreement of 1 December 1926 (Final Protocol, Article IV).* Publications Series B. No. 16, 28 August 1928. Collection of Advisory Opinions. Leyden, A. W. Sijthoff, 1928. 29 pp.

Confédération internationale des Syndicats chrétiens. *Quatrième Congrès, Munich, 25-28 septembre 1928. Rapport du secrétaire.* Utrecht. 144 pp.

Contains the report of the Secretary of the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions for the period 1925-1928 and brief reports on the development of the affiliated organisations and of the international trade federations. A list of the addresses of the national and international Christian trade union organisations is given in the appendix.

Conférence internationale des Organisations privées pour la Protection des Migrants. *Annuaire international 1927.* Geneva. 81 pp.

II Conferencia internacional de Emigración e Inmigración, La Habana, 31 de Marzo-17 de Abril de 1928. *Acta final.* Havana, 1928. 64 pp.

VI Conferenza dell' Unione Internazionale contro la Tubercolosi, 24-27 Settembre 1928. *La Tubercolosi. Scienza e Legge nella lotta contro la tubercolosi a traverso i tempi e nei diversi paesi.* Preface by Prof. Ettore Marchiafava. Published by the Italian Ministry of the Interior, General Directorate of Public Health. Rome, 1928. Vol. I, XLIV + 720 pp. Vol. II, 522 pp. Vol. III, 643 pp. Vol. IV, 1172 pp.

It is not possible to mention here each of the reports submitted to the Sixth Conference of the International Union against Tuberculosis and now published in these excellently printed volumes ; it will suffice to indicate their arrangement in eight sections devoted to the following subjects : historical survey of our present knowledge of tuberculosis and laryngeal phthisis ; bacteriology, etiology and immunisation ; therapeutics of tuberculosis ; the work of congresses, conferences and associations to combat tuberculosis ; legislation in the different countries ; the housing policy in Italy. There is no need to emphasise the interest of these reports which constitute a valuable and up-to-date survey of the questions studied

Congrès international de Protection de l'Enfance, Paris, juillet 1928. Vol. I, 424 pp. Vol. II, pp. 425-782.

Fédération internationale des Employés et des Techniciens. *Rapport moral et financier sur la période 1er juillet 1925-1er juillet 1928.* Amsterdam, 1928. 114 pp.

Fédération internationale des Ouvriers du Transport. *La prévention des accidents aux chemins de fer par l'introduction de l'attelage automatique.* Aux délégués à la

XI^e session de la Conférence internationale du Travail. Amsterdam, 1928. 158 pp.

International Country Life Commission. *Proceedings of the Second International Country Life Commission held at Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan, U.S.A., 3-6 August 1927.* Bulletin No. 5. 187 pp. English Edition : Eben Mumford, Michigan State College. French edition : Paul de Vuyst, 40 Rue des Joyeuses Entrées, Louvain, Belgium.

The International Country Life Commission, the purpose of which is to ameliorate social and cultural conditions on the countryside, held its second conference at East Lansing, Michigan, in August 1927. The above report contains the papers read at the Conference and the discussions which followed.

Internationale Union der Lebensmittelarbeiter. *Die Löhne der Lebensmittelarbeiter in den verschiedenen Ländern am 1. August 1927.* Zurich, 1927. 18 pp.

International Hydrographic Bureau. *List of Life-saving Stations of the World with their Equipment and Geographical Positions.* By Rear-Admiral Niblack. Second Edition. Special publication No. 18 (Revised), 18 July 1928. With notes in English and French on the organisation of life-saving services, signals, etc. Monaco. 88 pp. Obtainable from the General Secretary, 3 Avenue du Port, Monaco. $30 or 765 French francs. Reduction on 10 or more copies.

This publication, extremely useful to all officers responsible for safety of life at sea, gives an idea of the importance of the efforts and expenditure in the different countries in connection with the safety of seamen and shipping. No doubt the work it refers to is still far from complete, as is proved by the absence of live-saving establishments in Greece, and on almost the whole of the Asiatic coast, the coasts of Africa (with the exception of Algeria and Tunis and the ports of the Union of South Africa), such dangerous coasts as those of Newfoundland, Labrador and Greenland, the West Indies, Central America and a large part of South America, and, finally, Oceania. But the results achieved are already appreciable.

The volume gives the signals approved by the International Marine Conference convened at Washington in 1889, and a clear and comprehensive list of the life-saving stations of the world arranged according to country, with their equipment and geographical positions.

International Secretariat of Painters and Kindred Trades. *Sixteenth and Seventeenth Reports of the National Unions of the Painters and Kindred Trades for the Years 1926 and 1927.* Hamburg. 36 pp.

Société universelle du Théâtre. *Premier Congrès international du Théâtre et premier Festival international d'Art dramatique et lyrique. Organisés par l'Union française de la S.U.D.T., juin 1927, Paris.* Paris, Les Cahiers du Théâtre. 224 pp., illustr.

This well illustrated volume contains the reports of the first International Theatrical Congress and Festival of Dramatic and Lyric Art held in Paris, June and July 1927, Mr. Firmin Gémier, founder of the *Société universelle du Théâtre*, presiding. It gives the speeches delivered, describes the work of the sixteen sections of the Congress — several of which dealt with economic and social questions affecting dramatic artistes — and, finally, contains a list of the nations represented and the text of the resolutions passed.

Union internationale d'études sociales. *Code social. Esquisse d'une synthèse sociale catholique.* Paris, Editions Spes, 1928. 141 pp.

This code is the result of five years' work. From 1920 to 1925 a yearly meeting of some thirty professors and authorities on social questions from nine countries of Western and Central Europe was held under the chairmanship of Cardinal Mercier. The code drawn up is a synthesis of present day problems connected with family, civic, economic and international life, presented from the Catholic viewpoint.

The volume is published also in German and in English.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

AUSTRALIA

Department of Health. Division of Industrial Hygiene. *An Investigation into the Health of Employees in Gas-Making Plants.* By Frank H. Kerr, D.S.O., M.D., B.S., D.P.H. Publication No. 7. Melbourne. 88 pp.

Contains an interesting account of an investigation into the effects of exposure to inhalation of carbon monoxide gas and of working in high temperatures among workers in gas-making plants, undertaken at the request of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration. The technique of coal-gas production, the action of carbon monoxide gas on the body, and the effects of excessive heat and light are examined in turn. The most important part of the report, however, relates to the results of the medical examination of 370 workers and the mortality and morbidity statistics collected.

Development and Migration Commission. *Report on Unemployment and Business Stability in Australia.* Melbourne, 1928. 53 pp., graphs.

This report, a summary of which was given in *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XXVII, No. 12, pp. 328-330, contains a comprehensive survey of the position with regard to unemployment in Australia, and discusses causes and possible remedies. All the available statistical information concerning employment and unemployment is collected together in convenient form in an appendix, and is further illustrated by a series of graphs. A special appendix contains an interesting report by Professor D. B. Copland, of Melbourne University, on the influence of the business cycle on fluctuations of employment in Australia.

NEW SOUTH WALES

Registry of Friendly Societies. *Friendly Societies and Trade Unions, and Transactions under the Workmen's Compensation Acts.* (*Report of the Registrar for the twelve months ended 30 June 1927.*) Sydney, 1928. 21 pp. 1s. 9d.

BELGIUM

Ministère de l'Industrie, du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale. Administration des Mines. *L'industrie charbonnière pendant l'année 1927. Statistique provisoire et vue d'ensemble sur l'exploitation.* By J. Lebacqz and H. Anciaux. Brussels, 1928. 23 pp.

CANADA

Department of Labour. Technical Education Branch. *Studies in Occupations.* No. 3. *Office Work — General.* 18 pp. No. 4. *Office Work — Stenography.* 20 pp. Ottawa, 1928.

ONTARIO

Department of Agriculture. *Report of the Women's Institutes of the Province of Ontario, 1927.* Toronto, 1928. 96 pp.

SASKATCHEWAN

Department of Agriculture. *Report of the Saskatchewan Overseas Livestock Marketing Commission 1927.* Regina, 1928. 425 pp., graphs. $1.

This report, submitted to the Department of Agriculture by the Saskatchewan Agricultural Research Foundation at the request of the Saskatchewan Overseas Livestock Marketing Commission, contains the results of the investigations made by the Commission into live-stock marketing and live-stock production in Europe. Originally planned in connection with the marketing of Canadian livestock in Great Britain, and designed to include a study of co-operative bacon factories in England, the Irish Free State and Denmark, the enquiry was extended to embrace some of the Baltic States and, at the request of the United Farmers of Canada, to include the collection of data on the social aspects of rural community organisa-

tion in the countries visited. The report first makes a brief general review of agricultural reconstruction in Europe, touching on the economic causes which play such a disturbing rôle in the agricultural industry and on the findings of the International Economic Conference of 1927.

A careful study is then made of the conditions obtaining on farms, the effects of large and small-scale holding, and social and educational conditions.

Attention is drawn to the necessity for farmers to adapt production to world requirements. Danish farmers are stated to give untiring attention to the production of those types, grades and qualities of agricultural products which meet market requirements. In this connection the investigators state that " a need exists in Canada for . . . a Department, or Bureau, the special work of which would be to conduct studies in marketing research, in order that data would be readily available to the agricultural industry of the Dominion. " The theory is advanced that farmers should not be forced to produce or sell on a speculative basis, but that agriculture should be regularised by perfecting machinery for controlling costs and relating costs properly to selling prices.

The report is a useful contribution to the study of agricultural conditions in the northern countries of Europe.

FRANCE

Ministère du Travail, de l'Hygiène, de l'Assistance et de la Prévoyance sociales. Direction du Travail. *Statistique des grèves survenues pendant l'année 1925.* Paris. XIII + 142 pp.

GERMANY

Statistisches Amt der Stadt Berlin. *Erster Verwaltungsbericht der neuen Stadtgemeinde Berlin für die Zeit vom 1. Oktober 1920 bis 31. März 1924.* Heft 15. *Verwaltungsbezirk Charlottenburg.* 67 pp. Heft 26. *Verwaltungsbezirk Weissensee.* 45 pp. Berlin.

Statistisches Reichsamt. *Volks-, Berufs- und Betriebszählung vom 16. Juni 1925. Berufszählung. Die berufliche und soziale Gliederung der Bevölkerung des Deutschen Reichs.* Teil I. *Einführung in die Berufszählung 1925. Methode der Berufsstatistik — Erhebungs- und Bearbeitungsplan.* Teil II. *Die Reichsbevölkerung nach Haupt- und Nebenberuf.* Statistik des Deutschen Reichs. Band 402. Berlin, 1927.

HAMBURG

Arbeitsamt. *Jahresbericht 1927.* Hamburg, 1928. 38 pp., illustr.

GREAT BRITAIN

Board of Education. *Education for Industry and Commerce. A Survey of the existing arrangements for Co-operation between Industry, Commerce and the Professions and the Technical School System of England and Wales.* Educational Pamphlets No. 64. Industry Series No. 1. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 101 pp. 6d. paper covers, 1s. 6d. cloth bound.

" This survey of the arrangements at present in force for securing co-operation between the technical schools and the industries of England and Wales is intended ", the preface states, " as an introduction to a new series of inquiries into the organisation and methods of what is commonly called technical education ". The arrangements to " keep in touch " with the technical school system of England and Wales on the one hand and the needs of industry, commerce and the professions on the other, fall roughly into two classes : " first, the connections established by a local education authority with the trades and industries within its own administrative area, and, secondly, wider forms of co-operation on a national or regional basis, between the Board of Education or groups of local education authorities on the one hand, and employers' organisations, trade unions, trade associations or professional institutions on the other ". A survey of these " local " and " central " arrangements, as they may conveniently be called, is given after some general introductory observations on their character and scope.

—— *Report on Adult Education in Yorkshire for the Period ending on 31 July 1927.* Educational Pamphlet No. 59. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 54 pp. 1s.

Committee on Education and Industry (England and Wales). *Report.* Second Part. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 77 pp. 9d.

The first part of the report of the Committee on Education and Industry dealt with the adequacy of the arrangements of the public system of education in England and Wales for enabling young persons to enter into and retain suitable employment (cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 5, May 1927, p. 791). In the second part that system of education is analysed "in relation to the requirements of trade and industry". The method of procedure adopted was first to collect the views of important industrial and commercial bodies and then to present these views for the consideration of the educational bodies representative of administrators and teachers. University education is not dealt with, the Committee having decided to concentrate almost entirely on the public provision for boys and girls up to about 18 or 19 years of age, whether the education is preparatory to employment, as in elementary schools, or subsequent to employment, as for the most part in the evening and technical schools.

A summary of the conclusions and recommendations made is given at the end of the volume.

Committee on Industry and Trade. *Further Factors in Industrial Efficiency.* Being Part II of a Survey of Industries. With an Introduction by the Committee. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. v + 361 pp. 3s. 6d.

Parts I and II of the *Survey of Industries* prepared by the Committee on Industry and Trade deal with an examination of certain factors in industrial and commercial efficiency and competitive power which the Committee considered most suitable to be dealt with as a whole, rather than in connection with each separate industry. A note on Part I appeared in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVI, No. 4, October 1927, p. 582. The present volume deals with industrial output, costs of production and distribution, over-capitalisation in industry, transport facilities, industrial fluctuations, industrial mobility, official information and statistics, and public trading enterprise. The volume forms an important contribution to the study of the problems of British industry in the post-war period.

Electricity Commission. *Report of Proceedings of Conference on Electricity Supply in Rural Areas.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 84 pp. 1s.

The Conference was convened in 1927-1928 by the Electricity Commissioners set up under the Electricity (Supply) Act, 1926, with a view to co-ordinating information on the possibilities of extending electricity to rural areas in Great Britain. The recommendations of the Conference cover a number of both technical and general points.

Home Office. Workmen's Compensation (Silicosis) Committee. *Report of the Departmental Committee on Compensation for Silicosis dealing with the Pottery Industry.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 41 pp. 1s. 3d.

After a history of the subject leading up to the special powers conferred in 1927 on the Departmental Committee for dealing with silicosis and a description of the main features of the problem, the report outlines a scheme of compensation for the pottery industry. Two schemes for the refractories industries and the metal grinding industries respectively are examined with a view to determining how far the provisions of these schemes could be applied in the pottery industry.

An interesting report of the Conference between the medical members of the Committee and the medical advisers of the employers and operatives, given in the appendices, deals with certain points connected with clinical and radiographic examinations in the diagnosis of silicosis.

Mines Department. Safety in Mines Research Board. *Spontaneous Electrification in Dust Clouds (With Special Reference to Coal Dust Clouds).* By S. C. Blacktin. Paper No. 43. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 19 pp. 6d.

Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries. *Report on the Work of the Research and Education Division for the Year 1926-1927.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 87 pp. 2s. 6d.

The Intelligence Department of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries has hitherto published periodical reports for the whole of the Department, but it has now been decided that each Division shall make separate annual reports. In accordance with this decision the Research and Education Division has now published its first report, which covers the year 1926-1927. The report gives very full and interesting information on the development of agricultural research education in England.

—— *The Practical Education of Women for Rural Life.* Being the Report of a Sub-Committee of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Board of Education. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 61 pp. 6d.

In 1925 the Inter-Departmental Committee of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Board of Education set up a committee to study the practical education of women for rural life. This sub-committee has now published its report with conclusions and recommendations relating to the following questions: (1) practical education for rural life of adult women; (2) practical education for rural life of girls completing their full-time education at 14 years of age; and (3) practical education for rural life of girls in country schools.

Ministry of Health. Departmental Committee on Ethyl Petrol. *Minutes of Evidence taken before the Departmental Committee on Ethyl Petrol.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 80 pp. 5s. 6d.

Ministry of Labour. *Report on the Work of Advisory Committees for Juvenile Employment during the year 1927.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 41 pp. 3d.

The functions of Juvenile Advisory Committees, which are presided over by an independent chairman and include representatives of educational authorities, employers and workers, are to advise on the management of the employment exchanges in relation to juvenile applicants for employment, and to give information and advice to boys and girls and their parents with regard to the choice of employment. This report gives a general review of the work of the Committees, which numbered 162 in all, during 1927. It is shown that increasing use is being made of the facilities provided by the Committees in the direction of advising boys and girls and placing them in employment, and an account is given of the work of industrial supervision, to which great importance is attached by the Committees. It is of interest to note that in many districts serious unemployment among juveniles is a thing of the past, and that even in the "black spots" unemployment among young workers is relatively much less acute than among adults.

—— **Industrial Transference Board.** *Report.* London, H.M. Stationery Office 1928. 83 pp. 1s. 6d.

The Industrial Transference Board was set up in January 1928 to stimulate, and assist the transfer of workers from distressed areas to openings in other industries. The present Report discusses the industrial situation of Great Britain, estimates the number of workers who will have to be transferred to new lines of employment or encouraged to emigrate, and examines the difficulties confronting the application of such a policy. A summary of the Report was given in *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XXVII, No. 8, 20 August, 1928, pp. 206-208.

SCOTLAND

Committee on Education and Industry in Scotland. *Second Report.* London, Edinburgh, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 40 pp. 9d.

The Committee on Education and Industry in Scotland was appointed "to enquire into and advise upon the public system of education in Scotland in relation to the requirements of trade and industry, with particular reference to the adequacy of the arrangements for enabling young persons to enter into and retain suitable employment". The first report, to which attention was drawn in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVI, No. 1, July 1927, p. 131, was concerned with questions falling within the second part of the terms of reference. The second report first gives some account of the main features of the public system of education in Scotland. The system is examined under four heads: "Primary Schools," "Secondary Schools", "Day and Evening Continuation Classes and Central

Institutions ", and the " Educational Requirements of Agriculture ". The report then deals with the question of recruitment from the schools and, in the last chapter. with the problem of co-operation between education on the one hand and trade and industry on the other. Under each head, as the introductory note says, the reporters have " summarised the evidence which they have obtained from the representatives of trade and industry and of education respectively. " The Committee gives at the end its own observations and recommendations.

INDIA

Report of the Working of the Indian Emigration Act, 1922 (VII of 1922), the Rules issued thereunder and of the Labour Ordinances of Ceylon during the year 1927. By the Agent of the Government of India in Ceylon. Calcutta, Govt. of India Central Publication Branch, 1928. 13 pp.

JAPAN

Department of Railways. Labour Section. *An Outline of the Organisation and Operation of the Employees' Representative System of the Government Railways of Japan.* Tokyo, 1928. 43 pp.

—— **Traffic Bureau.** *Railway Education in Japan.* Tokyo, 1928. 24 pp.

This brief survey of the vocational training of railway employees in Japan contains, first, a historical review of its development, and secondly, a short account of the present situation. This last part includes details relating to the " Railway Institutes " established by a special regulation drawn up in October 1921 and to the different courses (regular as well as special) given in those institutes.

NETHERLANDS

Armenraad. *De Zorg voor de lichamelijk of geestelijk Gebrekkigen. Gids van instellingen in Nederland, samengesteld of Verzoek van de A. V.O., door den Armenraad te Amsterdam 1928.* Amsterdam. A38 + B92 pp.

Describes the institutions in the Netherlands for physically and mentally disabled persons and contains a list of these institutions drawn up by the Council for Poor Relief at the request of the Congress on Employment for the Disabled.

Departement van Binnenlandsche Zaken en Landbouw. *Verslagen en Mededeelingen van de Directie van den Landbouw 1928.* No. 1. *Lijst van Officiëele personen, Instellingen en Vereenigingen op Land- en Tuinbouwgebied.* The Hague, 1928. 176 pp. 1 florin.

This useful annual publication gives names, addresses, etc., of all organisations in the Netherlands dealing with agriculture and horticulture. It includes information on the Agricultural Division of the Department of Internal Affairs and Agriculture, on State-aided agricultural and horticultural educational establishments, etc. A list of Government publications on agriculture and horticulture issued since 1904 is appended.

Ministerie van Arbeid, Handel en Nijverheid. Rijksdienst der Werkloosheidsverzekering en Arbeidsbemiddeling. *Werkloosheidsverzekering Wachtgeldregelingen. Verslag van den Rijksdienst der Werkloosheidsverzekering en Arbeidsmiddeling over het Jaar 1926.* The Hague, 1928. 255 pp.

Annual report of the Unemployment Insurance and Employment Service for 1926. The number of insured persons at the end of the year was 289,000, as against 277,000 at the end of 1925. The total expenditure was 5,200,000 florins, while contributions amounted to 5,000,000 florins, 3,400,000 of which represented public grants.

NORWAY

Arbeidsretten. *Dommer og Kjennelser av Arbeidsretten 1927.* By Paal Berg. Oslo, 1928.

Annual report for 1927 of the Norwegian Industrial Court, established under the Act relating to settlement of labour disputes.

SERB-CROAT-SLOVENE KINGDOM

Ministarstvo Socijalne Politike. *Izvestaj inspekcije rada i parnih Kotlova Kraljevine Srba, Hrvata i Slovenaca o Njenom Poslovanju u.g. 1917.* Belgrade, 1928. 229 + XXII pp.

SPAIN

Instituto Nacional de Previsión. Comisión asesora nacional patronal y obrera. *I V. Labor del Pleno (21-24 de marzo de 1927). Resumen de las sesiones celebradas, acuerdos, documentación anexa.* Madrid, 1927. 248 pp.

The report of the sittings of the Consultative Committee of Employers and Workers of the Spanish National Provident Institute gives the text of the Maternity Insurance Bill and a statement regarding agricultural workers' pensions.

Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria. Dirección general de Acción social y Emigración. Servicios de Emigración. *Resumen general de la migración española en 1927.* Serie C. Estadisticas. Madrid, 1928. 11 pp.

This pamphlet is a reprint from the *Boletin de la Subdirección general de Emigración* (*Tercera Epoca, Tomo 1, No. 3*). The statistical data it contains were analysed in detail in the November 1928 issue of the *Monthly Record of Migration.*

—— **Dirección general de Trabajo y Acción social. Negociado de Conflictos y Crisis de Trabajo : Conciliación y arbitraje.** *Estadistica de las Huelgas. Memoria Correspondiente al Trienio 1924-25-26.* Madrid, 1927. 231 pp.

Statistics relating to industrial disputes in Spain during the years 1924, 1925 and 1926.

SWEDEN

K. Socialstyrelsen. *Arbetslöshetsräkningen och de Lokala Arbetslöshetsundersökningarna i Sverige ar 1927. Le recensement des chomeurs en 1927.* Sveriges Officiella Statistik. Socialstatistik. Stockholm, 1928. XIV + 208 pp.

UNITED STATES

Department of Agriculture. *Year-book of Agriculture 1927.* Edited by Nelson Antrim Crawford and Arthur P. Chew. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. XXII + 1234 pp., illustr. $1.50.

Department of Commerce. Bureau of Mines. *Accidents at Metallurgical Works in the United States during the Calendar Year 1926.* By William W. Adams. Technical Paper 430. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. 38 pp. 10 cents.

Department of State. *Report of the Delegates of the United States of America to the Sixth International Conference of American States held at Habana, Cuba, 16 January to 20 February 1928. With Appendices.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. VI + 343 pp. 50 cents.

This Report contains a summary of the work accomplished in the various Committees of the Sixth International Conference of American States which held ten plenary sessions, approved and signed eleven conventions, sixty-two resolutions, seven motions and four agreements, the English and Spanish texts of which appear in the appendix together with the texts of the addresses delivered at the opening session. The subjects for discussion on the agenda of the Conference included, among others, intellectual co-operation and a number of economic and social questions.

Federal Trade Commission. *Co-operative Marketing.* Document No. 95. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. LVIII + 721 pp.

This document, prepared in pursuance of a Senate resolution, includes : (1) a report on the development and importance of the co-operative movement together with the results of an enquiry into illegal interferences with the formation and operation of co-operative societies ; (2) the results of a study of co-operative costs, prices, and marketing practices of co-operative and other marketing organisations and distributors handling farm products. Each of these reports is preceded by a letter from the Chairman of the Federal Trade Commission to the President of

the Senate, containing a summary of the report and the conclusions arrived at.

Treasury Department. Public Health Service. *Efficiencies of Painters' Respirators Filtering Lead Paint, Benzol and Vitreous Enamel Sprays.* Public Health Bulletin No. 177. Washington, 1928. IV + 27 pp. 15 cents.

Technical study on the value of various respiratory appliances employed in protecting spray painters, examined from the point of view of their efficiency in filtering lead paint mist, benzol vapours and water-mist carrying silica dust. The report includes a description of the respirators most widely used, an account of the tests made, and of the results obtained.

—— —— *Review of Literature on the Physiological Effects of Abnormal Temperatures and Humidities.* By R. R. SAYERS and Sara J. DAVENPORT. Reprint No. 1150 from the Public Health Reports, 8 April 1927 (pages 993-996). Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1927. III + 63 pp. 10 cents.

After discussing the occurrence of abnormal temperatures and humidities in man's natural environment (effects of seasonal variation in the temperate climates, effects of tropical climate and of cold climate) and in industries, the authors describe the bodily reactions to abnormal atmospheric conditions and the effects of abnormal temperatures and humidities on working capacity and accident rate. The physiological action of abnormal temperatures and humidities are then examined, and subjective and objective symptoms are reviewed. Measures for the prevention of ill effects of exposure to high temperatures are indicated (personal hygiene and ventilation). A summary of the study and a bibliography comprising chiefly recent works are added.

MASSACHUSETTS

Department of Labour and Industries. *Time Rates of Wages and Hours of Labour in Massachusetts 1927.* Labour Bulletin No. 153. Part IV of the *Annual Report on the Statistics of Labour for the Year ending 30 November 1927.* Boston. 120 pp.

This report gives in great detail by occupation and district the time rates of wages, for ordinary time and overtime, and the hours of labour of workers in the chief manufacturing industries, public utilities, and transportation services. Data are also given for employees in the federal and municipal services. The figures show minimum rates of wages and maximum hours of labour which have become effective in the various organised trades either by written or by oral agreements between employers and union employees. No information is given for piecework occupations. The data are comparable with those published in previous reports.

PENNSYLVANIA

Department of Labour and Industry. *Proceedings of the Pennsylvania Safety Congress, 21-23 March 1928, Philadelphia.* Harrisburg, 1928. 371 pp.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Allgemeiner freier Angestelltenbund. *Die Angestelltenbewegung 1925-1928. Geschichts- und Handbuch der Wirtschafts-, Sozial- und der Gewerkschaftspolitik.* Berlin, 1928. 300 pp. 14 marks ; bound, 16 marks.

The report on the activities of the German Federation of Salaried Employees from 1925 to 1928 contains an account of the evolution of economic and social policy in Germany and statistics relating to unemployment, wages, cost of living, rationalisation, etc.

—— *Die Angestellten in der Wirtschaft. Eine Auswertung der amtlichen Berufszählung von 1925.* Berlin, 1928. 111 pp.

This work, prepared with the assistance of the German Statistical Office, is a study of the changes which have occurred in Germany in the number of workers and salaried employees in commerce and industry. In those industries where rationalisation has been introduced the number of salaried employees has increased

in relation to the number of workers. The number of salaried employees in relation to the total population has also increased.

The study includes some statistical tables.

American Engineering Council. *Safety and Production. An Engineering and Statistical Study of the Relationship between Industrial Safety and Production.* New York and London, Harper and Brothers, 1928. 414 pp.

American Federation of Labour. *Wages in Manufacturing Industries 1899 to 1927.* Washington, 1928. 75 pp. 10 cents.

This study is based mainly on statistics of the total number of manufacturing wage earners in the United States and the total amount of wages paid to them, as shown in the censuses of manufactures. Pre-war and post-war data are given. Changes in "real" earnings are calculated by relating changes in money earnings to changes in the cost of living. Changes in "social" wages are calculated by comparing variations in money earnings with variations in the total value added to the product by the manufacturing processes; if earnings become a higher proportion of the value added, the position of the workers is raised relatively to other classes of the community, and *vice versa*. The proportion which wages form of total cost of production is also calculated.

Data are given both for manufacturing industries as a whole and for each of the chief industries. Statistics are also given showing for different dates the relation between the wages of workers in Northern and Southern States of the Union, between those of skilled and unskilled workers, and those of men and women.

American Institute of Co-operation. *American Co-operation, 1927. A collection of Papers and Discussions comprising the Third Summer Session of the American Institute of Co operation at the School of Commerce, Northwestern University, Chicago, Ill., 20 June-16 July 1927.* Vol. I, XVI + 856 pp. Vol. II, VII + 834 pp. Washington.

These volumes contain the proceedings of a four-weeks' educational conference of leaders in agricultural co-operation.

American Vocational Association. *Adult Education. A Special Report adopted by the American Vocational Association at its Annual Convention in Los Angeles, California, December 1927.* Bulletin No. 1. 70 pp. 25 cents.

Arbeiterrat Gross-Hamburg. *Jahrbuch 1927.* Hamburg, 1928. 195 pp.

Ashby, A. W. *Economic Conditions in Welsh Agriculture. Suggestions of Some Remedies.* Aberystwyth, University College, Agricultural Economics Department, 1928. 35 pp. 1s.

This short, careful analysis of the economic side of Welsh farming is based throughout on data collected by the Agricultural Economics Department of University College, Aberystwyth. It contains a survey of prices, production conditions, and marketing. Attention is drawn to the important effects of the slow rate of agricultural production; the "lag" in the agricultural turnover, it is pointed out, brings losses avoidable in other industries.

An appendix of half-a-dozen pages contains a study on "Labour Organisation on Welsh Farms", by Mr. J. LLEFELYS DAVIES. Great stress is here laid on the need for regularising the use of labour. The use of machinery, enabling the farmer to dispense with casual labour, is, the writer says, "an advantage to the farmer and to the whole of the rural community". The waste of potential labour force involved in the family system of farming, where each family worker is not fully employed, has been one of the causes of poor return and standards of living lower than are really necessary. "The aim should be to employ the minimum number of workers aided by the maximum amount of capital to obtain the best balance between capital equipment and labour, or that which will give the lowest cost per unit of work done." The short analysis of labour requirements per production unit in this appendix is decidedly interesting.

Associazione nazionale per la prevenzione degli infortuni sul lavoro. *Relazione sull' organizzazione e sull' attività dell' Associazione con speciale riferimento all' anno 1927.* Milan, 1928. 128 pp.

Report on the organisation and activities of the Italian National Association

for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents with special reference to the year 1927.

Baade, Dr. Fritz. *Entwicklungsmöglichkeiten der europäischen Landwirtschaft.* Schriftenreihe des deutschen Volkswirts, 3. Berlin, 1928. 43 pp.

In spite of its brevity, this pamphlet manages to draw attention to a number of salient facts and to point the way to many suggestive inferences. The author assisted in the preparation of the data supplied by the German Delegation to the World Economic Conference in 1927, data which were co-ordinated to present a general survey of the world development of agricultural production in its relation to economic needs, especially those of the European populations, over the last fifty years. The present pamphlet sets forth the author's reflections on these data. What new sources of food supply are now to replace those provided through the XIXth century opening up of the virgin prairies of the North American Continent, which alone made possible the unnatural growth of industrialised populations in Europe ? The author finds the answer in an increase of agricultural production within Europe itself, and sees in the popular adoption of the improved technical processes known to, but still little used by, European farmers, the means to that end. To prove his point, he correlates briefly the figures for increased cereals production and for the use of fertilisers in Europe.

Baasch, Ernst. *Holländische Wirtschaftsgeschichte.* Handbuch der Wirtschaftsgeschichte, herausgegeben von G. Brodnitz. Jena, Gustav Fischer, 1927. VII + 632 pp.

The book is divided into three parts ; the first deals with the industrial history of the Netherlands from the formation of the Utrecht Union (1581) to the outbreak of the French revolution. Soon after independence was won, industry developed remarkably. Large capitalist enterprises flourished and colonial expansion began as early as 1594 when the East Indian Company was established. A few pages only (384-419) are devoted to the transition period from the occupation of the country by the French to 1815. The last chapter gives an account of the industrial reconstruction after the Napoleonic wars and of more recent developments.

Bernhard, Dr. Hans. *Die Wirtschaftsprobleme des Vallemaggia (Tessin) als typischen Gebirgsentvölkerungsgebiets.* Schweizerische Vereinigung für Innenkolonisation und industrielle Landwirtschaft. Schriften Nr. 36. Zurich, 1928. 46 pp.

Population problems of the mountainous districts in Switzerland have been subjected to careful study for some time. This book deals especially with the economic problem of the Vallemaggia valley, which is considered typical of the mountainous districts suffering from exodus of the population.

Bielecki, Jan. *Dr. Franciszek Stefczyk. Pionier Spółdzielczosci Rolniczej w Polsce.* Warsaw, Zwiazek Rewizyjny Polskich Spółdzielni Rolniczych, 1928. 24 pp.

Describes the work of Dr. Francis Stefczyk, pioneer of agricultural co-operation in Poland.

Bornstein-Lychowska, Dr. Melanja. *Miedzynarodowa Organizacja Pracy. Zarys Ustroju i Dzialalnosci. L'Organisation internationale du Travail. Structure et activité.* Publications de la Société polonaise de politique sociale, No. 6. Warsaw, F. Hoesick, 1928. 82 pp.

This excellent pamphlet deals with the aims, problems and working of the International Labour Organisation, and describes the results already achieved. After a brief account of the organisation of the International Labour Office, the International Labour Conference and the Governing Body, the author analyses the scope of the international legislation relating to hours of work, protection of children, young persons, and women workers, industrial hygiene, etc. He then indicates the results obtained by enumerating, with explanatory notes, the ratifications of Conventions adopted by the Conference. The author's conclusion is an enthusiastic but well considered vindication of the aims of the International Labour Organisation.

Bougnard, Dr. Elisabeth. *Das Problem der Berufskrankheiten in den europäischen Ländern.* Cologne, 1928. XII + 63 pp.

After indicating the scope of the problem of workmen's compensation for

occupational diseases and the principles on which are based the various systems of compensation actually in force, the author gives an account of the relevant legislation in nineteen European countries. The study ends with a brief survey of the international movement connected with the question : the author recalls the terms of the Berne White Phosphorus Convention (1906), examines with care the work undertaken by the International Labour Office and emphasises the importance of the Convention relating to compensation for occupational diseases adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1925. The author has made extensive use of documents and her work contains a good bibliography.

Bourgeois, Nicolas. *Les théories du droit international chez Proudhon. Le fédéralisme et la paix.* Bibliothèque générale d'économie politique. Paris, Marcel Rivière, 1927. 138 pp.

The author examines Proudhon's theories of international law and his system of rational organisation of relations between countries, devised to ensure justice and peace.

Bouvier, Jeanne. *La lingerie et les lingères.* Bibliothèque sociale des métiers publiée sous la direction de Georges RENARD. Paris, Gaston Doin et Cie., 1928. 392 pp.

The author, a former member of the French Superior Council of Labour, has put her ability and her experience at the service of a particularly ill-remunerated class of women workers. She examines in turn the occupational organisation of seamstresses in ancient times and during the Middle Ages, the developments in the linen and lingerie trade, and the organisation of the work in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. In her capacity as member of the Committee of the French Office for Home Work, Mrs. Bouvier has taken part in the Office's efforts to render fully effective the Act of 10 July 1915, the essential provisions of which relate to the minimum wage, and to place the administration of the Act entirely under the control of the Labour Inspectorate, in compliance with the requirements of Part XIII of the Peace Treaty. She describes the present situation as regards amendments to the Act of 10 July 1915 and the work of the wages committees. Then, turning her attention to the position of home workers in the lingerie trade in relation to social legislation, the author enquires why the Act of 1898 on compensation for industrial accidents is not applicable to this class of workers. She renews the protest made in the articles published by her at the time of the Seventh Session of the International Labour Conference (1925), the agenda of which included the question of compensation for industrial accidents. " In the statement of general principles laid down in Article 427 of Part XIII of the Peace Treaty, it is said that the physical, moral and intellectual well being of wage earners is of supreme importance. Home workers are wage earners, since the Act of 10 July 1915 prescribes their legal minimum wage. We do not understand why the International Labour Conference at its Seventh Session excluded them from the international Convention on compensation for industrial accidents. "

This attractive and well-documented work does honour to the series of studies in which it is published.

Carrard, Dr. A. *Le développement de la psychotechnique en Suisse. L'Institut psychotechnique de Zurich jusqu'en 1927.* Schweizer Schriften für rationelles Wirtschaften, Nr. 8. Zurich, Hofer, 1927. 47 pp.

The author describes the development and experiments of the Psychotechnical Institute of Zurich from its foundation down to 1927.

Chambre consultative des Associations ouvrières de Production. *Annuaire 1928.* Paris. 363 pp., 20 francs.

The year-book of the French Chamber of Workers' Productive Co-operative Societies for 1928 contains the history of the organisation since its foundation in 1884, its rules, a list of affiliated societies, and a complete collection of the provisions and regulations relating to workers' productive co-operative societies.

Cleveland, Frederick A. *American Citizenship as distinguished from Alien Status.* New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1927. VII + 475 pp., illustr.

The aim of this book is to provide a scientific presentation of facts which it is thought each American citizen and each alien should know about his status when

within the jurisdiction of the United States. It deals in popular form with such matters as the legal basis of citizenship, the advantages and disadvantages of aliens in the United States, and the position of citizens and aliens as subjects. It contains a good bibliography.

Cole, G. D. H. *The Payment of Wages. A Study in Payments by Results under the Wage System.* New and revised edition. London, George Allen and Unwin, 1928. xxi + 155 pp.

In this revised edition the author has made various additions to the original study published nearly a decade ago. He claims, however, that although industrial conditions show considerable change, the fundamental problems of the wage system have remained the same. The movement from time to piece rates and the adoption of bonus systems of payment have been much slower than seemed probable a few years ago. The introduction of more standardised systems of production, which often results in changes in the methods of wage payment, has been restricted in Great Britain by the great industrial depression.

In considering present tendencies, the author discusses the extension, in the post-war period, of the use of self-acting machinery, which largely determines the pace at which work is done, and which, in consequence, renders piece-work incentives unnecessary. He is of opinion that the chief struggle of the future will not be between time work and piece work, but between the work of minding an automatic machine and work of increased technical efficiency without undue monotony or rigidity of discipline. In developing this last type of work, industrial physiology and psychology should play an important part. They are superior to the earlier forms of scientific management which, by piece-work and bonus systems and time and motion studies, sought to increase production without considering adequately the subjective effects on the workers.

The author is of opinion that, in the main, the right line of advance for the trade unions is not the progressive substitution of individual "payment by results" for time work, but rather that of collective for individual systems of payment. These should be established by trade unions which have undertaken, through their experts, to master the technique of workshop management. Under "collective contracts", the total remuneration of the workers of a factory or department varies according to total output, the total of wages being divided among the workers in agreed proportions. The wide adoption of such a system would provide a means "of organising that responsible relationship of the workers to industry which present conditions imperatively require". It develops a co-operative spirit, and, while avoiding the setting of man against man, gives the workers a collective interest in improving the efficiency of production. It supplies "the easiest means for the workers of extending their control over industry in precisely those things which they are best equipped to control". Where industry is depressed, as at present in Great Britain, however, such a system would not be likely to stimulate an increase in output per "worker-hour" as this would involve dismissal of workers. This is especially true if the employer is a member of a combine which has adopted a policy of restricting output.

The author devotes chapters to a detailed discussion of the various piece-work systems of wage payment, bonus and "efficiency" systems, scientific management, collective bargaining, workshop committees and workshop bargaining, commission systems and profit sharing. The respective merits of time work and payment by results are discussed. Throughout, the author stresses the essential need of a satisfactory system of remuneration consistent with the sense of justice of those employed under it. However perfect a system may be, he points out, it will give satisfactory results only if it is applied in a spirit of goodwill

The survey is completed by appendices giving the provisions of various piece-work and other agreements, together with a list of some of the most important books which deal with the subject.

Committee on the Cost of Medical Care. *The Five-Year Programme of the Committee on the Cost of Medical Care.* Washington, 1928. 39 pp.

—— *The One Great Outstanding Problem.* Washington. 8 pp.

Confederazione Generale Fascista dell' Industria Italiana. Associazione fra le Società italiane per Azioni. *Piccolo Annuario Statistico Italiano, 1928.* Rome, 1928. 207 pp.

1er Congrès national des Œuvres officielles de Sauvetage de l'Enfance à Lyon, 2-5 juin 1927. *Compte rendu.* Lyon, 1928.

The agenda of the Congress comprised four sections dealing respectively with: (1) the mother and child; (2) the child from 3 to 14 years; (3) the young person from 14 to 18 years; (4) officially organised child welfare work in Lyons. The work of the third section was dealt with under the chairmanship of Mr. LABBÉ, General Director of Technical Education, and bore more especially on the problem of vocational guidance, the point of view and the rôle of the doctor in vocational guidance, apprenticeship, and education in home economics.

Crew, Albert, and Blackham, R. W. *The Unemployment Insurance Acts, 1920-1927.* London, Jordan and Sons, 1928. XVI + 195 pp. 5s.

This book, which shows how the many Unemployment Insurance Acts from 1920 have been affected by subsequent legislation and more particularly by the Act of 1927, will be welcomed by all who have endeavoured to find their way through the mazes of these complicated and intricate Acts. An introduction to and a general summary of the Unemployment Insurance Acts is given in the first chapter, and in succeeding chapters the Acts of 1920-1927 as repealed or amended are set out *in extenso* together with useful annotations (including summaries of judicial rulings and references to leading cases). Some of the more important statutory rules and orders are given in an appendix, and the book is provided with an exhaustive and comprehensive index.

Decaris, Dr. A. *Die Agrarfrage Dalmatiens.* Inaugural-Dissertation an der Philosophischen Fakultät der Universität Basel. Split, Leonova Tiskara, 1928. 83 pp.

A brief, but clear account of the complex agrarian situation in Dalmatia, and of the beginnings of agrarian reform. It is a merit of the thesis that the economic situation is treated as the principal problem. The abolition of mediaeval servitudes and forms of land tenure will not solve the agrarian problem; the author points to the great need of soil improvements before the extensive areas of uncultivated land can be made to support their proper quota of the population.

Délégations au Xme anniversaire de la Révolution d'Octobre. *Les femmes pour l'Union soviétique.* Paris, Bureau d'éditions, 1928. 90 pp. 3 francs.

Report on the work of the International Conference of Women and the Congress of Women Workers and Peasants of the Soviet Union held at Moscow, in October 1927, on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of the October Revolution.

Deutscher Ausschuss für Technisches Schulwesen. *Lehrgang für Zimmerer für planmässige praktische Ausbildung und für den technischen Unterricht.* Unter Mitarbeit zahlreicher Fachleute massgebender Körperschaften und mit Unterstützung des Reichskuratoriums für Wirtschaftlichkeit. Berlin, 1928. Illustr. 2.50 marks.

Deutscher Baugewerksbund. *Jahrbuch 1927.* Hamburg, 1928. 600 pp.

Die Sozialversicherung nach dem neuesten Stand der Gesetzgebung. Systematische Darstellung des Sozialversicherungsrechts und Einführung in die Praxis. Lehrbuch für Sozialversicherungsbeamte und Studierende des Sozialversicherungsrechts. Herausgegeben von Ludwig BRUCKER. Unter Mitwirkung von Dr. MUTHESIUS, Hans Süss, Dr. Lutz RICHTER. 1. Band von Ludwig BRUCKER. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1928. 311 pp.

Dresdner Volkskunstschule. *Wege und Ziele.* Dresden, 1927. 43 pp.

Evangelisch-Sozialer Kongress. *Die Verhandlungen des fünfunddreissigsten Evangelisch-Sozialen Kongresses, Dresden, 29.-31. Mai 1928.* Göttingen, Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht, 1928. 185 pp.

Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America. Department of Research and Education. *The Coal Strike in Western Pennsylvania.* Research Bulletin No. 7. New York, 1928. 99 pp.

This report contains the results of investigations carried out in the Western Pennsylvania coalfields at the request of the Pittsburgh Council of Churches. A chapter on the historical and legal background of the situation and of the economic

conditions in the coal industry as a whole is followed by a detailed account of the struggle of the United Mine Workers of America with the coal companies, particularly in the Western Pennsylvania coalfields to maintain the right of labour to collective bargaining.

In conclusion the report makes a certain number of recommendations towards a solution of the difficulties of the coal industry. It deplores the belligerent and oppressive tactics adopted by both sides and advises co-operation between the companies and their employees ; the reconsideration by the companies of their stand on the principle of collective bargaining which they have abandoned ; a frank presentation by the companies of the financial data upon which they base their contention that the union scale is prohibitive ; and acceptance by the mine workers of a larger measure of responsibility for the prosperity of the industry. Finally, it considers that the public has a vital interest in setting the coal industry in order and should see to it that the economic loss and suffering caused by unemployment and inadequate earnings shall not recur, and that the present methods of preventing unionisation in the Southern fields shall end.

Federazione sindacale Fascista dell' Industria cotoniera italiana. *I concordati di lavoro nell' industria cotoniera italiana. Stipulati a tutto l'anno 1927.* Con introduzione del presidente Ing. Carlo TARLARINI. Milan, 1928. 152 pp.

This volume contains the texts of all the collective agreements, whether local, regional, or national, from 1915 to 1927, in the Italian cotton industry.

Fileni, E. *Développement des Chaires ambulantes d'Agriculture en Italie.* Rome, 1927. 21 pp.

In this communication to the thirteenth International Congress on Agriculture, Mr. Fileni — who has long held important posts in the central organs of the Italian Agricultural Travelling Schools — describes the history, the development and the results of the activities of these institutions for agricultural education, which have largely contributed to the progress of Italian agriculture from both the technical and economic standpoints.

Finckh, Dr. Hans. *Arbeitsmarkt-Verhältnisse in Schleswig-Holstein.* Fragen des Arbeitsmarktes. Dissertationsreihe des Seminars für Arbeitsvermittlung und Berufsberatung an der Universität Münster. Herausgegeben von Dr. Heinrich WEBER und Dr. Bernhard OADEMANN. Heft III. Münster, 1928. XII + 113 pp.

Dr. Finckh's study, which is one of a series of similar works published by the Employment and Vocational Guidance Seminary of the University of Münster, deals with the labour market in Schleswig-Holstein.

Foster, William Trufant, and Catchings, Waddill. *Progress and Plenty. A Way out of the Dilemma of Thrift.* Reprinted from *The Century Magazine*, July 1928. Newton, Massachusetts, Pollak Foundation for Economic Research, 1928. 31 pp.

This pamphlet outlines the argument of a book by the same authors, entitled *The Road to Plenty*, an account of which was given in the *International Labour Review* for April 1928, p. 657.

Garbai, Alexander. *Die Bauhütten (Vergangenheit und Zukunft). Der Weg zum gemeinwirtschaftlichen Aufbau der Arbeitsorganisationen im Baugewerbe.* Hamburg, Verlag Deutscher Baugewerksbund, 1928. 232 pp.

After an analysis of the origin of the guild movement in ancient times and during the Middle Ages, the author describes the economic basis and trend of the modern building guild movement, and the ethical considerations and social ideas which have inspired it.

Gebhardt, Dr., Martineck, Dr., and Gottstein, Dr. (a) *Die Sozialversicherung.* By Dr. GEBHARDT. (b) *Das Reichsversorgungswesen.* By Dr. MARTINECK. (c) *Die medizinische Statistik.* By Dr. GOTTSTEIN. Handbücherei für Staatsmedizin. Vierzehnter und Fünfzehnter Band. Berlin, Carl Heymann, 1928. 271 pp.

General Federation of Trade Unions. *Proceedings at the Twenty-ninth Annual General Council Meeting held at Great Yarmouth 5-6 July 1928.* London, 1928. 51 pp.

Girault, Arthur. *Principes de colonisation et de législation coloniale.* V. Troisième

partie. *L'Afrique du Nord.* 2. *La Tunisie et le Maroc.* Cinquième édition revue et augmentée. Paris, Recueil Sirey, 1928. IX + 559 pp.

Gley, Emile, and Champeau, Henry. *L'instituteur.* Bibliothèque sociale des métiers publiée sous la direction de Georges RENARD. Paris, Gaston Doin et Cie, 1928. 538 pp.

After describing the origin and development of the school and the situation as regards public education in France in 1789, the authors examine the influence on primary education of the Revolution and of the different forms of government which followed it. They analyse the scope of the Acts passed during the Revolution, the Restoration period, and the second and third Republics, and then discuss the value of modern educational methods (intuitive and active methods). Finally, they consider the teachers' organisation movement, the history, development and activities of teachers' unions, and indicate the problems raised by the present organisation of public elementary education in France.

Goerrig, Dr. Franz. *Das Arbeitsrecht in der Praxis.* Neue Folge (V. Band der ganzen Reihe) 1.7.1926-31.12.1927. Leipzig, A. Wordel, 1928. XI + 578 pp.

Grigaut, Maurice. *Que faut-il savoir de la Société des Nations Qu'est-elle ? Qu'a-t-elle fait ? Que peut-on en attendre ?* Bibliothèque des Chercheurs et des Curieux. Paris, Librairie Delagrave, 1928. 126 pp.

The author has not attempted to vindicate the League of Nations at whatever price. He has rather sought to give the reader a work which, planned on simple lines, is yet scientific in character, that is to say, one which does not seek to exaggerate results or minimise obstacles. He studies in turn the character of the League of Nations, the humane work it has undertaken, the maintenance of peace, and the efforts to prepare and organise for peace in the future. The volume includes a bibliography.

Guillebaud, C. W. *The Works Council. A German Experiment in Industrial Democracy.* Cambridge University Press, 1928. VIII + 305 pp. 16s.

The author, who has made a close study of his subject during a number of years spent in Germany, does not confine himself to a technical analysis of German legislation on works councils, but, in addition, examines at length a whole series of present-day problems of the highest interest in Great Britain, among others, the relations between works councils and the trade union movement, and the effects of works councils on industrial relations and industrial self-government. The book should prove a valuable source of reference on one of the most characteristic forms of industrial democracy in Germany.

Hamilton, Walton H. and Wright, Helen R. *A Way of Order for Bituminous Coal.* Publications of the Institute of Economics. Investigations in Industry and Labour. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1928. XIII + 365 pp.

This book deals with the bituminous coal industry in the U.S.A. and is concerned with such questions as the nature of industrial organisation, the demands which the community may with reason impose upon an industry, and the ways by which an industry may be made to do the things expected of it. Special attention is devoted to the stake of the workers in the industry, the effects of industry upon their lives and their place in the general scheme of industrial control.

Hansen, K. A. *Forebyggelse af Ulykkesstilfaelde under Arbejde.* Reprinted from *Socialt Tidsskrift,* March 1928. 42 pp. Copenhagen.

A summary of Danish legislation relating to the prevention of industrial accidents, prepared by Mr. Hansen of the Danish Ministry of Health.

Hardman, J. B. S., and others. *American Labour Dynamics in the Light of Post-War Developments.* An Inquiry by Thirty-two Labour Men, Teachers, Editors and Technicians. Edited by J. B. S. HARDMAN. New York, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1928. XV + 432 pp.

The studies which make up this book were prepared under the guidance of the Provisional Officers and Advisory Board of the American Labour Problem Associates, an organisation "created to study, analyse and interpret factual developments and the movement of ideas within the ranks of labour and on the fringes of the labour movement". Their aim is to present a general view of the signifi-

cant developments that took place in the labour sphere during the years 1918-1928, and to throw light on the effects of the economic and social trends of the post-war decade on the labour mind and labour organisation in the United States.

Hereod, R. *La question de l'alcool au point de vue international.* Lausanne, La Concorde, 1928. 33 pp.

The question of alcoholism presents certain international aspects which will become more prominent, the author writes, as the relations between countries become closer. Although the problem is primarily a national one, a knowledge of how it is being dealt with in different countries is indispensable. It is the international aspects of alcoholism and of the efforts to combat it which are dealt with in this pamphlet.

Hexter, Maurice Beck. *Juvenile Employment and Labour Mobility in the Business Cycle.* Boston, Massachusetts Labour Committee, 1927. XIX + 111 pp. Paper cover, 50 cents; cloth, $1.

The value of this monograph lies in its contribution to our body of knowledge, at present lamentably incomplete, of the processes through which children go who are leaving or have recently left school for work. Dr. Hexter has utilised a considerable mass of statistical data and is able to demonstrate with the aid of a series of charts and graphs the existence of a close connection between juvenile employment and the general labour market in Massachusetts. The study suggests the possibility of creating a representative national juvenile employment index on similar lines to the one constructed by Dr. Hexter for Boston.

Heyde, Dr. Ludwig. *Abriss der Sozialpolitik.* Fifth revised edition. Leipzig, Quelle und Meyer, 1928. 159 pp.

This new edition of Professor Heyde's little book, to which attention was drawn in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, August 1922, p. 308, and Vol. IX, No. 3, March 1924, p. 457, is as welcome as it is opportune. After a brief introduction defining social policy and its methods, the author devotes several chapters to an adequate and well-informed survey of German labour legislation from its earliest beginnings to the present day. A short concluding chapter touches on possible future developments. This informative book is to be commended to everyone interested in German social affairs.

Industrial Accident Prevention Associations. *Report of the Safety Convention and Annual General Meeting held at Hamilton, 8-9 May 1928.* Toronto. 163 pp.

Institute of Industrial Welfare Workers. *The Committee Movement in Industry.* Articles reprinted from *Welfare Work.* London, 1928. 47 pp. 6d.

Under this title are collected several articles which appeared during 1928 in *Welfare Work*, the journal of the Institute of Industrial Welfare Workers. The several articles, each by a different author, are descriptive of the activities of various types of Welfare Committees and Works Councils in a few selected industries in England. For articles which deal with such a relatively small sample of Industrial Committee activity, and of the Works Council movement in general, the title chosen is too comprehensive, and compared with the extensive and substantial literature of the subject already available, this series of articles is quite elementary. However, if a brief and up-to-date account be desired of the status of Joint Committee activities in a few progressive British industries, this publication of the Institute of Industrial Welfare Workers will be found satisfactorily to serve the purpose.

Internationales Jahrbuch für Schiedsgerichtswesen in Zivil und Handelssachen. Herausgegeben von Dr. Arthur NUSSBAUM. Band II. Berlin, Carl Heymann, 1928. XII + 405 pp.

This is the second edition of an international year-book devoted to arbitration in civil and commercial disputes.

Irvine, L. G. *The Present Position of Miners' Phthisis on the Rand.* Address delivered to the Association of Mine Managers, 20 July 1928. 12 pp.

The author makes a statistical study of miners' phthisis (silicosis in its simple form or accompanied by tuberculosis) among workers on the Rand for the past

eleven years. He examines, in the light of the statistical data collected, the factors on which depend the number of cases of silicosis detected during a given period : occupational and hygienic conditions which produce the disease, duration of time during which the members of the group of working miners have been exposed to these occupational conditions, standard of "diagnosis". Then, turning his attention to the two principal causes of miners' phthisis, dust and tuberculosis, the author emphasises the importance of prophylactic measures ensuring : (1) the greatest possible diminution of the production of dust in every mining process which creates it, and its removal from the air when found, (2) the diminution of the amount of tuberculosis underground.

Janvier, J. M. *Organisation professionnelle et repos hebdomadaire. Loi du 29 décembre 1923.* Paris, Les Presses universitaires de France. 157 pp. 20 francs.

After examining the development of legislation in favour of occupational organisation in France and present-day signs of a far-reaching transformation in the life of the worker, the author considers the institution of the weekly rest day, which, in his opinion, is the combined result of this movement and the French Act of 29 December 1923. He shows how this Act has made agreement between the most representative employers' organisations and trade unions in a particular industry and district the very condition on which the observance of the weekly rest day depends. In the last part of the book, the author outlines the occupational organisation of the future. A bibliography is included.

Jeunesse ouvrière chrétienne. *Le livre de la sécurité.* Edité à l'occasion de l'Exposition de la Sécurité ouvrière du 7 au 21 octobre 1928. Liège. 64 pp.

This interesting pamphlet will be dealt with in the *Industrial Safety Survey.*

Jones, Caradog D. *The Cost of Living of a Sample of Middle-class Families*, Issued in advance of the *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, Vol. XCI, Part IV. 1928. London, 1928. 56 pp. 1s.

Jordan, Herbert W., and Borrie, Stanley. *A.B.C. Guide to the Companies Act, 1928.* London, Jordan and Sons, 1928. XIII + 188 pp. 5s.

Jourdanne, Jules. *Les associations de fonctionnaires et le recours pour excès de pouvoir.* Paris, Rousseau et Cie, 1928. 156 pp. 15 francs.

The author attempts to define the legal status of civil servants' organisations in France, in the light of decisions rendered in connection with the administration of the Trade Union Acts of 1884-1920 and the Act of 1901 on associations, in accordance with French legal practice pertaining to common law and to administration. His analysis of this twofold jurisprudence leads him to conclude that the *associations* of civil servants formed under the Act of 1901 alone are entitled to legal appeal or to institute legal proceedings, while civil servants' *unions* (*syndicats*) founded under the Acts of 1884 and 1920, although legitimate in fact, are not so competent.

Mr. Jourdanne considers that the enactment of legislation clearly defining the status of civil servants' associations can alone put an end to the drawbacks resulting from the present situation.

Kent Education Committee. *Review of the Work of Vocational Guidance and Juvenile Welfare Within the Administrative County of Kent for the Year ended 31 July 1927.* Maidstone, 1928. 50 pp.

Klapkrowski, Dr. Tadeusz. *Spółdzielnie Rolnicze w Województwach Centralnych i Wschodnich.* Warsaw, Związek Spółdzielni Rolniczych Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej, 1928. XIII + 223 pp.

Study on the agricultural co-operative societies in eastern and central Poland.

Knudson, John Immanuel. *Methods of International Legislation. With Special Reference to the League of Nations.* Thèse présentée à l'Université de Genève. Geneva, 1928. 138 pp.

Kraupa, Dr. Ernst. *Der Glasbläserstar.* Munich, J. F. Bergmann, 1928. 119 pp., illustr.

After an interesting historical review of the subject, the author gives a detailed description of glassworkers' cataract. Statistics, etiology, pathogenesis and safety

measures are dealt with in separate chapters. A study of the problem of glass-workers' cataract considered as an occupational disease and a detailed bibliographical index complete the volume.

Labour Party. *Report of the Ninth National Conference of Labour Women held at Portsmouth 16 and 17 May 1928. Together with Report of Private Conference on Organisation held 15 May.* London, 1928. 76 pp. 3d.

Lavarde, Guy L. de. *Situation juridique et sociale des entraîneurs et jockeys.* Thèse pour le doctorat. Université de Paris. Faculté de droit. Paris, Rousseau et Cie, 1927. 278 pp.

This is a treatise on the legal position of trainers, jockeys and employees in racing stables in France and on various questions of interest, both from a legal and a social point of view, connected with their work and position.

This position is largely regulated by sets of rules known as the *Codes des Courses*. The legal nature of these rules has been much disputed. Analysis has now shown them to be no more than provisions of a contract which persons who take part in horse-racing make with one of the three societies which control its administration. The persons who enforce these regulations are neither judges nor arbitrators, but merely agents of these societies.

The book discusses in detail the contracts entered into by trainers, jockeys, and stable lads. It examines the nature of the work done by these persons and the category of employment to which it belongs. It also deals with their occupational organisations and societies founded for their assistance.

Lenin, W. I. *Materialismus und Empiriokritizismus. Kritische Bemerkungen über eine reaktionäre Philosophie.* Vienna, Berlin, Verlag für Literatur und Politik, 1927. XXXI + 487 pp.

Les colonies italiennes. Numéro spécial. Hors série. Supplément du numéro d'août de *La Vie technique et industrielle.* Paris, 1927. 135 pp.

Lewis, Edward R. *America, Nation or Confusion. A Study of our Immigration Problems.* New York, London, Harper Bros., 1928. XVI + 408 pp.

The main idea which Mr. Lewis defends in this book is that uncontrolled immigration brought about a certain disintegration in American life and that the present restrictive immigration policy is necessary to prevent that disintegration from continuing. Unrestricted immigration, he thinks, has led to growing political and social disunion. This is, to a large extent, the protest of an American of the old Anglo-Saxon stock against the danger which threatens that stock as a result of the infusion of blood of many alien nationalities. Mr. Lewis considers it essential to keep in the majority the stock to which the United States institutions are native, or, at least, to give it a chance to remain in the majority. It is being done, we are told, by the Immigration Act of 1924 which seeks, first, to limit immigration to reasonable and workable proportions and, secondly, to favour immigrants from Northern and Western Europe at the expense of those from Southern and Eastern Europe.

The author considers, however, that the present 1890 basis for the immigration quotas is not satisfactory and that the national origins provision should be brought into force at the earliest possible moment.

Ligue nationale du Coin de Terre et du Foyer. *Le coin de terre et le petit élevage en Belgique. Rapports édités à l'occasion du Congrès-Exposition des 1-3 septembre à La Louvière.* La Louvière, 1928. 123 pp.

Contains the reports submitted to the Congress and Exhibition held 1-3 September 1928 at La Louvière in connection with small holdings and home management. The second part of the pamphlet deals with cattle and poultry breeding on a small scale, an important industry in Belgium, and with education in home economics.

Maddison, Eugen, and Angelus, Oskar. *Das Grundgesetz des Freistaats Estland vom 15. Juni 1920.* Berlin, Carl Heymann, 1928. VIII + 94 pp.

Maukisch, K. R., Sperk, H., Lehmann, E., Vogel, W. *Das Sandstrahlgebläse unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der Massnahmen zur Vermeidung von Schädigungen bei seiner Verwendung.* Schriften aus dem Gesamtgebiet der Gewerbehygiene. Herausgegeben von der Deutschen Gesellschaft für Gewerbehygiene. Neue Folge. Heft 21. Berlin, Julius Springer, 1928. 46 pp.

A few pages only of this brochure, which is almost entirely technical, are devoted to injuries to the health of workers engaged in sand-blasting operations. The work describes the different kinds of apparatus used (compressed air, steam, and vacuum jet blowers) and technical protective measures (elimination of dust, respirators, apparatus and special appliances, etc.). A number of illustrations are included.

Moller-Arnold, Dr. E. *Vergleich der Leistungen nud Kosten des Rübenverziehens und -erntens von Betrieben eines niederschlesischen Kreises.* Schriftenreihe des Betriebswirtschaftlichen Ausschusses beim Land- und Forstwirtschaftlichen Arbeitgeberverband für die Provinz Schlesien. Heft 8. Breslau, Alfred Fritzsche, 1928. 20 pp.

Pamphlet in the series on farm management problems published by the Union of Agricultural and Forestry Employers in the province of Silesia. It contains a comparative study on tasks performed and costs in beet thinning and beet lifting on farms in a Lower Silesian district. The figures given show the importance of modern wage principles and rational planning of the work.

Monheim, Maria. *Rationalisierung der Menschenvermehrung. Eine Studie zur praktischen Bevölkerungspolitik.* Jena, Gustav Fischer, 1928. VI + 142 pp.

A comprehensive and impartial treatment of the subject of birth control, such as is given in this book is a difficult and exacting task. The main difficulty in dealing with the question lies in the fact that this matter of fundamental importance to the community is one in which the individual must strongly resent interference. The author attempts to reconcile the private with the public interest. A student of political economy, with practical experience as a doctor, she is able to approach the subject from widely divergent standpoints. The book includes a historical account of the respective attitudes of the Church, the State and public opinion towards the question.

Morgenstern, Oskar. *Wirtschaftsprognose. Eine Untersuchung ihrer Voraussetzungen und Möglichkeiten.* Vienna, Julius Springer, 1928. V + 128 pp.

Study devoted to the practical value of the various economic indexes and methods of using index numbers. It deals with the following questions among others: preliminary conditions and economic forecasts; the use of the economic barometer and its effects; possibilities and future of forecasting methods.

Nast, Alfred. *Code de la Coopération. Etude sur le régime légal et réglementaire de la coopération en France. Textes (Lois, Décrets, Arrêtés, etc.) classés et annotés.* Paris, Librairie du Recueil Sirey, 1928. VI + 705 pp. 45 francs.

In this work are brought together for the first time the legal texts which form the basis of French law on co-operation — mutual credit and agricultural or maritime co-operative organisations, credit societies for the assistance of retail trade and small industries, such as mutual guarantee societies and people's banks, hotel credit societies, artisans' and workers' co-operative organisations, distributive societies, co-operative building societies, etc. The classification adopted, the numerous notes and observations, and the detailed tables facilitate reference. Moreover, the first part of the work is devoted to a general review of some two hundred pages which gives, according to an ordered plan, the legislative provisions and regulations concerning the different forms of co-operation, and constitutes in itself an important contribution to the general theory of co-operation.

National Child Labour Committee. *Child Labour Facts, 1928.* No. 343. New York. 17 pp. 15 cents.

A summary showing the extent of child labour in the United States, the occupations in which children are principally employed there, and the present condition of Federal and State child labour legislation, followed by brief studies of certain aspects of child labour.

National Council of Social Service. *Co-operation in Social Service. Being the Annual Report of the National Council of Social Service for the year 1927-28.* London. 48 pp. 6d.

The National Council of Social Service was founded in 1919 to bring together

the principal voluntary and statutory agencies concerned in social service, so that by working together they might avoid overlapping and enable better progress to be made.

This principle of co-operation is reflected in the composition of the National Council, which includes representatives of voluntary movements of national scope. Government Departments, and associations of local government authorities, Thus the Council provides a meeting place where all the leading bodies concerned n such matters as public health, education, the use of leisure, the care of young people, the relief of distress and so forth can meet together and plan common action.

For the year 1927-1928 the report makes special reference to the work of the Council in regard to adult education, the training of village craftsmen, workers' leisure, and oversea settlement.

National Industrial Conference Board. *Employee Stock Purchase Plans in the United States.* New York, 1928. xi + 245 pp.

—— *The Cost of Living in the United States of America, 1914-1927.* New York, 1928. xiv + 142 pp. $2.

In this volume the National Industrial Conference Board, the important organisation of American employers, presents a complete survey of the movements in the cost of living in the U.S.A. since 1914. The volume is to some extent a continuation of earlier volumes on the Cost of Living in the U.S.A. (for 1914-1926, cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVI, No. 6, December 1927, p. 899), but it has been completely revised. It discusses the difficulties and problems connected with the cost of living and compares the index numbers prepared by the Board with those of the Bureau of Labour Statistics. The volume is enriched by numerous graphs and an appendix of statistical tables.

—— *The Cost of Living in Twelve Industrial Cities.* Studies of the Cost of Living. New York, 1928. x + 76 pp. $1.50.

Contains the results of a cost-of-living investigation in twelve representative American industries between August and October 1927. One large, one medium-sized and one small city were selected from the States of Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania and Ohio. The investigations were confined to the cost of maintaining a fair minimum American standard of living for wage earners. The most significant deduction to be drawn from them is the limited amount of difference which appears to exist between the various cities in the total cost of maintaining the standard. Differences in living costs between large and small cities and geographical sections have, it appears, been over-estimated in the past.

—— *The Economic Status of the Wage Earner in New York and other States.* Studies in Industrial Relations. New York, 1928. xi + 125 pp. $2.50.

A comparison of the economic status of the wage earner in New York State with that of his counterpart in other States with which New York State is in active industrial competition. After a discussion of the chief characteristics of industry in New York State, the volume compares the level of wages in the different States, the development of industrial relations activities, and the cost of living. The report concludes that the economic status of the average wage earner in New York State compares favourably with his position in the other States considered. (Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois and Michigan).

—— *Wages in the United States 1914-1927.* New York, 1928. xiii + 168 pp.

This volume continues and completes information given in previous studies with regard to wages, hours of labour, and employment in American industries. In the course of its investigations the National Industrial Conference Board has gradually extended the field covered, and in the present study data are given for twenty-five manufacturing industries and also for public utilities, anthracite mining, building trades, Class I railroads, and agriculture. As far as possible comparisons are made for various dates during post-war years in relation to information for 1914. Comparisons of earnings with the cost of living are made in order to give indications regarding the levels of real wages at different dates.

Office coopératif belge. *Compte-rendu du XV^me Congrès à Bruxelles le 16, 17 et 18 juin 1928.* Brussels. 212 pp. 10 francs.

Palestine Zionist Executive. Department of Labour. *Report on Investigation of the Cost of Living of Jewish Workers' Families, August 1926.* Statistical Bulletin No. 14, 1926. Jerusalem, 1927.

Pini, Auguste. *Le trade-unionisme et ses rapports avec le mouvement ouvrier anglais contemporain.* Thèse pour le doctorat (sciences économiques et politiques). Université de Paris. Faculté de droit. Paris, E. de Boccard, 1927. 292 pp.

After a historical review of the origin and development of workers' organisations in England, the author makes a general survey of trade unionism at the present day. He describes the development of the unions in the principal industries and the influence of various theories on the British trade union movement, defines the meaning and scope of their activities in the political and economic spheres, and, in the light of his analysis of these various factors, considers the future outlook for British trade unionism. According to Mr. Pini's view, the general strike of 1926 marks the end of an epoch in the evolution of British trade unionism. Two subsequent events, the passing of the Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act of 29 July 1927 and the offer of collaboration with capitalist employers made at the recent Trade Union Congress, must, he says, have a decisive influence on the future evolution of the British labour movement. The present legal status of trade unions is briefly described in the appendix.

Prümm, Heinrich. *Die gewerbliche Berufsschule als Mittel zur Erhöhung der Konkurrenzfähigkeit des Handwerks.* Inaugural-Dissertation zur Erlangung der Doktorwürde der Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Köln. Saarbrücken, Saarbrücker Druckerei und Verlag, 1927. 134 pp.

Raczynski, Dr. Aleksander. *Umowu Zbiorowe Pracy. (Uwagi do projektu Ministerstwa Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej.)* Warsaw, J. Hoesicka, 1928. 51 pp.

Commentary on the Bill relating to collective agreements drafted by the Polish Ministry of Labour and Social Assistance.

Raeder, J. and Storsteen, E. *Forebyggelse av cienskader i arbeidslivet.* Norsk Forening for Socialt Arbeide. Arbeidervernskrifter. V. Oslo, 1928. 31 pp.

This little volume, one in a series of "labour protection pamphlets" published by the Norwegian Association for Social Progress, deals with the prevention of eye injuries in industrial occupations.

Rechtsvergleichendes Handwörterbuch für das Zivil- und Handelsrecht des In- und Auslandes. Herausgegeben von Dr. Franz Schlegelberger. Zweiter Band. Vierte und Fünfte Lieferung (*Anwachsung im Erbrecht — Bedingung*). Berlin, Franz Vahlen, 1928. Pp. 241-400 + 8.

Reichsausschuss der Deutschen Jugendverbände. *Tätigkeitsbericht für die Geschäftsjahre 1926-1927.* Berlin, 1928. 64 pp.

R. K. Werkliedenverbond in Nederland. *Derde Jaarboek 1927.* Utrecht. 254 + IV pp.

Year-book (1927) of the Netherlands Catholic Workers' Federation.

Rockefeller Foundation. *Annual Report 1927.* New York, 1928. IX + 385 pp.

Rühl, A., Schulte, R., and others. *Die Aschebeseitigung in Grosskesselanlagen.* Schriften aus dem Gesamtgebiet der Gewerbehygiene. Herausgegeben von der Deutschen Gesellschaft für Gewerbehygiene. Neue Folge. Heft 22. Berlin, 1928. 46 pp.

Sacy, Jacques S. de. *Conséquences économiques et sociales du retour de l'Allemagne à l'étalon-or.* Thèse pour le doctorat en droit. Université de Paris. Faculté de droit. Paris, Les Presses universitaires de France. 190 pp.

Salvatierra, Sofonias. *Obrerismo y Nacionalidad.* Managua, 1928. 207 pp.

After showing the influence of physical and geographical conditions on the formation of the various characteristics which constitute nationality, and citing as examples several great civilisations, the author analyses the distinctive features of the people of Nicaragua. He then briefly examines the principal socialist doc-

trines and the socialist movement in Europe, analyses the labour movement in Nicaragua and indicates how it might be organised on the basis of thrift and education.

Slotemaker de Bruine, J. R., and others. *Vijf-en-Twintig Jaren sociale Verzekering.* Haarlem, H. D. Tjeenk Willink, 1928. VIII + 342 pp., illustr.

Société suisse des Voyageurs de Commerce. *Ses cinquante ans d'activité, 1878-1928* Lausanne, 1928. 294 pp.

This report on the activities of the Swiss Union of Commercial Travellers during the past fifty years is also published in German.

South African Institute for Medical Research. *Annual Report for the Year 1927.* Johannesburg, 1928. 83 pp.

Special mention may be made of the report on the work of the Research Division of the Institute and, more particularly, that of the Department of Industrial Hygiene in connection with experiments on dust inhalation, dust estimation and elimination, and tuberculin reactions in natives employed in mines.

Souweine, Paul B. *L'Argentine au seuil de l'industrie.* Ecole des sciences politiques et sociales de Louvain. Paris, Victorion Frères et Cie, 1927. XXIX + 644 pp.

Argentina, an almost entirely pastoral country until 1914, received during the war a great industrial impetus. Owing to the fact that the industrial activity of the principal countries producing manufactured goods was directed to the satisfaction of home needs and national defence, a dearth of these products on the Argentine market was increasingly felt. A large number of factories and workshops sprang up in the neighbourhood of large towns and, in spite of equipment which was often primitive and improvised, succeeded, at least to some extent, in making up the deficiency in imports. A brief period of experiment was followed by the establishment of the new industries on a firm basis. When the war was over, these industries, dealing principally with the transformation of raw materials, were able to compete successfully with those of industrial countries anxious to recapture their lost markets.

As a firm believer in the industrial future of his country, the author examines, in the first part of his work, the assets which enabled Argentina to achieve her industrialisation. He estimates her resources in population and labour supply, in fuel and in raw materials, her equipment in machinery and tools, her banking and her credit systems. The second part deals with social, industrial and commercial legislation, the fiscal system and customs policy. With regard to the last point, which is one of special interest in Argentina to-day, the author advances arguments in favour of free trade, admitting only the possible necessity of a temporary and judicious protective tariff. The rôle of the State, he considers, should consist "in preparing the ground for industry, attracting the necessary labour by a rational immigration policy, developing vocational education, enacting social legislation which will safeguard the interests of the workers without alarming the capitalist, and industrial legislation which will protect Argentine industry from unfair competition both at home and abroad, and, finally, in instituting active propaganda in favour of Argentine manufactures."

Sozialdemokratischer Parteitag 1927 in Kiel. Protokoll mit dem Bericht der Frauenkonferenz. Berlin. J. H. W. Dietz, 1927. 375 pp.

Staberow, Dr. Joachim. *Die Stellung der Machttheorie des Lohnes in der sozialökonomischen Wissenschaft.* Greifswalder Staatswissenschaftliche Abhandlungen herausgegeben von Dr. W. Ed. BIERMANN, Dr. W. KAHLER und Dr. K. MUHS. Greifswald, L. Bamberg, 1927. 62 pp.

Steding, Dr. Fritz. *Die Kartellierung der Landwirtschaft.* Berlin, Deutscher Schriftenverlag, 1928. 80 pp.

This small book is a challenge to German agriculturists to reorganise the selling policy of their industry by adopting some form of the cartel system. The author, who has written on the application of scientific rationalisation methods to agriculture, contrasts the insignificance of the efforts of European agriculturists to influence agricultural prices with the initiative taken by farmers in the large agricultural producing countries in other continents.

Not all the arguments advanced by the author are convincing. The possibilities of the co-operative marketing organisations are perhaps under-estimated. The analysis of the suitability of agricultural produce for cartel marketing is at many points questionable ; the bulk and perishable nature of agricultural produce, the possibilities of substitution of one food for another for a period long enough to break prices, the reactions (hardly calculable as yet) of the domestic consumers to a strict organisation of agricultural selling and the political pressure exercisable through their mass vote, are not touched on. An attempt is made, however, to get down to the roots of the matter. The thesis needs to be supported by figures, but these, as the author complains, are not available in his own country. The most careful and original part of the book is the practical programme at the end, where a reasonable line of policy is sketched out, which might form the basis of a sustained effort in the near future.

Stefczyk, Dr. Fr. *Znamiona i Zadania kas Stefczyka.* Warsaw, Zwiazek Rewizyjny Polskich Splódzielni Rolniczych, 1927. 64 pp.

This study, which is reprinted from a larger work by Dr. Stefczyk, describes the aims and activities of the Stefczyk agricultural credit funds.

Tao. L. K. *Livelihood in Peking. An Analysis of the Budgets of Sixty Families.* China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture. Peking, Social Research Department, 1928. 158 + xxii pp.

Statistical information with regard to living conditions in China is far from abundant and Professor Tao has performed a useful service in undertaking the study of family budgets in Peking. The data which he has compiled cover 48 workers' families of the poorer class and 12 families of school teachers. The period covered by the enquiry is six months in the case of the workers' families and one month in the case of the teachers, during the winter of 1926-1927.

The information regarding the workers' families was obtained by investigators who visited each family, generally daily. Many difficulties not encountered in conducting family budget enquiries in western countries had to be overcome. Thus ignorance of reading, writing, and arithmetic by the members of the families made it necessary for those conducting the enquiry themselves to enter all the records on the forms. In the case of the price data, difficulties arose from the fact that the value of coins varies according to the amount of metal they contain ; also there is no fixed relation between the silver dollar and the copper coins. In the case of weights and measures, the absence of uniform standards caused complications in securing quantitative information. In view of these and other difficulties, it is a matter of congratulation that the work was brought to a successful conclusion.

The results show in detail the income and expenditure of each family. An interesting description of housing conditions and housing equipment is also given.

Teleky, Dr., Lochtkemper, Dr., Rosenthal-Deussen, Dr., Erika, and Derdack. *Staubgefährdung und Staubschädigungen der Metallschleifer insbesondere der des bergischen Landes. Arbeit und Gesundheit.* Heft 9. Herausgegeben von Dr. Martineck. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1928. 205 pp. 14 marks.

The question of compensation for industrial diseases resulting from the inhalation of dust in industrial occupations, has, until recently, been studied more particularly in English-speaking countries. It is now receiving close attention from German specialists. The above volume is an important contribution to the literature on the subject. After a study of the social and health conditions of the grinders of Slingen, including statistics of morbidity and mortality in this category of workers, the authors describe working conditions and technical processes. They indicate the methods of analysing dusts collected in workrooms and some results obtained, and give the data collected as a result of the medical and radiographic examination of workers. The authors declare themselves able for the first time to determine the exact nature of the pulmonary lesions due to different categories of dusts. They indicate the necessary prophylactic measures for workers exposed to the risk of dusts. The volume includes some interesting appendices relating to the relevant Prussian legislation and to studies on dusts carried out in Great Britain.

Terzaki, Christo. *Agrotike synetairistiki organosis.* (*Organisation coopérative agricole ; les coopératives de premier degré.*) Vol. I. Calamai (Greece), 1928. 112 pp.

In this study on Greek agricultural co-operative societies, the author shows the necessity of recruiting the members of these organisations among homogeneous agricultural elements. He recommends the creation of local co-operative credit and purchase societies and of co-operative societies operating within a wider radius for the transformation and sale of products. The organisation on an independent basis of the currant industry, which is at present under State control, should (he considers) give birth to a central union of co-operative purchasing societies, a pan-Hellenic federation of co-operative societies, and lastly, an annual general meeting of co-operative societies.

Trüdinger, Dr. *Die württembergische Landwirtschaft im Lichte der Statistik.* Sonderabdruck aus den *Württembergischen Jahrbüchern für Statistik und Landeskunde*, Jahrgang 1927. Stuttgart, W. Kohlhammer, 1928. Pp. 240-402. 2 marks.

An offprint of the Wurttemberg Year-book of Agricultural Statistics for 1927. A special chapter describes land tenure. Statistics on agricultural education are also given. The volume contains no information with regard to agricultural labour.

Unfallverhütungsvorschriften der Töpferei-Berufsgenossenschaft. Ausgabe 1928. Berlin.

Urban, Georg. *Zentrifugen-Sicherungen. Eine Beschreibung des erforderlichen Schutzes an Zentrifugen.* Technischer Aufsichtsdienst der Nahrungsmittel-Industrie-Berufsgenossenschaft (Reichsunfallversicherung). Berlin, 1928. 31 pp.

Varga, N. *L'économie de la période de déclin du capitalisme après la stabilisation.* Paris, Bureau d'Editions. 174 pp. 6 francs.

Although Mr. Varga considers that, during recent years, the position of capitalism has been strengthened in the principal countries, he argues that various social and economic factors inherent in the evolution of capitalism preclude its permanent consolidation and complete stability. In fact, the author contends, the action of these factors, which manifests itself in increasingly wide and serious industrial disputes, leads capitalism steadily towards its fall.

Verband der Gemeinde- und Staatsarbeiter. *Tariflöhne der Beschäftigten im Organisationsbereich des Verbandes der Gemeinde- und Staatsarbeiter. Stand am 31. Dezember 1927.* Berlin. 298 pp. 1.50 marks.

Verband Schweizerischer Arbeitsämter. *Dreiundzwanzigster Geschäftsbericht für das Jahr 1927. Protokoll der X. Verbandsversammlung Schweizerischer Arbeitsämter in Genf, 8. Oktober 1927.* Zurich, 1928. 82 pp.

The twenty-third yearly report of the Swiss Association of Labour Offices shows the number of offices affiliated at the end of 1927 as 35 ; employment was found for 82,735 applicants during the year under review, as against 73,988 in 1926. The report includes the text of an address on the development of employment exchanges delivered by Professor Mangold at the annual meeting of the Association.

Wilhelmi, Dr. K. *Die wertschaffende Arbeitslosenfürsorge.* 3. Auflage. Bücherei des Arbeitsrechts, Neue Folge, Band 8. Herausgegeben von Dr. F. Syrup und Dr. O. Weigert. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1928. 205 pp.

This volume, which forms part of a series of studies on labour legislation published under the direction of Dr. Syrup, President of the autonomous Institute for Placing and Unemployment Insurance, and Dr. Weigert, of the German Ministry of Labour, contains the text of the recent provisions relating to the organisation of relief work for the unemployed, together with a detailed commentary.

Wollschläger, Hanns. *Der Eintritt nichtstaatlicher Verbände in die Völkerrechtsordnung auf dem Gebiete des internationalen Arbeitsrechts.* Braunsberg, Kommissionsverlag der Hederschen Buchhandlung, 1928. VIII + 70 pp.

The subject of this monograph is the position of trade associations in international law in relation to their co-operation in international labour legislation. The author first traces the history of the part played by private associations in developing the system of international labour law. The position of trade associa-

tions under Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles is then discussed. Examining the position of the workers' and employers' representatives at the International Labour Conference and on the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, the author concludes that trade associations can be held to have no specific legal right of representation, as they possess only a limited and somewhat vague power of assisting in the choice of these representatives. Their right to complain of the non-fulfilment by a Member of the Organisation of its obligations with respect to a Convention that it has ratified is, however, a specific legal right, though one of a narrow scope.

The author reaches the conclusion that trade associations can only be regarded as a subject of international law to a very restricted extent. This constitutes, nevertheless, a result of considerable significance. For it is a step towards the breakdown of the old conception of international law as concerned exclusively with the relations of States with one another. Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles cannot be reconciled with this conception. That States should have agreed to permit the workers' and employers' representatives in the International Labour Organisation to speak and vote in opposition to the representatives of their Governments is a remarkable and significant phenomenon. The precise effect in international law of this part of the Treaty is difficult to estimate, and therefore necessarily controversial. The trend of development is nevertheless unmistakable ; in this, from a legal point of view, lies its main interest.

Zaluski, P. *Co to Jest Kasa Stefczyka i Jak ja Zalozyc ?* Warsaw, Zwiazek Rewizyjny Polskich Spółdzielni Rolniczych, 1927. 64 pp.

Describes the aims and organisation of the Stefczyk mutual co-operative agricultural credit funds.

—— *Wspólpraca Kasy Stefzyka ze Spółdzielnia Rolniczo-Handlowa.* Warsaw, Zwiazek Rewizyjny Polskich Spółdzielni Rolniczych, 1927. 93 pp.

The author describes the collaboration of a Stefczyk fund with a workers' commercial co-operative organisation.

Zentralverband der Schuhmacher. *300 Haushaltungs-Rechnungen von Arbeitern der Schuhindustrie und des Schuhmacher-Gewerbes in Deutschland. Aufgenommen vom 1. April 1925 bis 31. März 1926.* Nuremberg, 1928. 95 pp.

This report gives the results of an interesting enquiry conducted by the German Central Union of Shoemakers into the family budgets of members of its organisation. The data collected cover the year from 1 April 1925 to 31 March 1926, information being supplied by the families with regard to both income and expenditure. Data are given as to the number of hours worked during the year by the head of the family. Information regarding housing accommodation is also given. The report gives not only general averages but also the details for each family as to income, classified according to source, and expenditure on each of the chief items which enter into the cost of living.

For the 300 families covered, the average income during the year was 2,460 32 marks, of which nearly 72 per cent. was earned by the head of the family, nearly 10 per cent. by the wife, and about 7.5 per cent. by the children, while social insurance benefits and other similar receipts accounted for 6.67 per cent. Among the chief groups of expenditure, food, drink, and tobacco represented 53.81 per cent. of total expenditure ; the percentages for clothing, including laundry, cleaning and repairing, and for housing accommodation, including heating and lighting, were 12.39 and 12 respectively.

Zwiazek Rewizyjny Polskich Spółdzielni Rolniczych. *Dziesieciolecie Zwiazku Rewizyjnego Polskich Spółdzielni Rolniczych w Warszawie. 1917-1927.* Warsaw, 1927. 42 pp.

A review for the period 1917-1927 published on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of the foundation of the Union of Polish Agricultural Co-operative Societies.

—— *Regulaminy Instrukcje i Przepisy dla Kas Stefczyka.* Warsaw, 1928. 109 pp.

Regulations, rules, and instructions relating to " Stefczyk " co-operative agricultural credit funds.

—— *Regulaminy Instrukcje i Przepisy dla Spółdzielni Mleczarskich.* Warsaw, 1928. 110 pp.

Regulations and instructions relating to a co-operative dairy.

—— *Sprawozdanie Zwiazku Rewizyjnego Polskich Spółdzielni Rolniczych w Warszawie za 1927 rok.* Warsaw, 1928. 40 pp.

Report on the activities of the Union of Polish Agricultural Co-operative Societies during 1927.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED BY THE OFFICE

Barthel, Albert. *Der Bolschewismus in seiner Stellung zur Religion und Kirche.* Kampfschriften zur Umwälzung der Geister, Heft 1. Berlin, Element-Verlag 1928. 32 pp. 40 pfennigs.

Boukharine, N. *L'économie mondiale et l'impérialisme. Esquisse économique.* Bibliothèque Marxiste No. 4. Paris, Editions sociales internationales, 1928. 178 pp. 12 francs.

Brutzkus, Boris. *Die Lehren des Marxismus im Lichte der russischen Revolution.* Berlin, Hermann Sack, 1928. 90 pp.

Deutscher internationaler Anwalt-Verband. *Das Aussenhandelsmonopol der Sowjetunion.* By Heinrich Freund. Internationale Rechtspraxis. Heft 11. Berlin, 1928. 24 pp.

Die Beamtengehälter. Besoldungstafeln für die Beamten des Reichs, der Reichsbahn und Preussens. Gültig vom 1. Oktober 1927 an. Stuttgart, R. Boorberg. 16 pp.

Die neue Beamtenbesoldung. Ausgabe für Reich, Reichsbahn und Preussen. Stuttgart, Richard Boorberg, 1928. 32 pp.

Durtain, Luc. *L'autre Europe. Moscou et sa foi.* Treizième édition. Paris, Editions de la Nouvelle Revue française, 1928. 351 pp.

Földes, Béla. *Volkswirtschaftliche und sozialpolitische Untersuchungen.* Jena, Gustav Fischer, 1927. 276 pp.

Gladkov, Feodor. *Le ciment.* Traduit du russe par Victor Serge. Paris, Editions sociales internationales, 1928. 362 pp. 18 francs.

Korsch, Karl. *Um die Tariffähigkeit. Eine Untersuchung über die heutigen Entwicklungstendenzen der Gewerkschaftsbewegung.* Berlin, R. L. Prager, 1928 56 pp. 1 mark.

Mirkine-Guetzevitch, B. *La théorie générale de l'Etat soviétique.* Préface de Gaston Jèze. Paris, Marcel Giard, 1928. 203 pp. 25 francs.

Nötzel, Dr. Karl. *Die russische Leistung.* Wissen und Wirken. Einzelschriften zu den Grundfragen des Erkennens und Schaffens. Herausgeber Dr. E. Ungerer. Band 45. Karlsruhe, G. Braun, 1927. 114 pp.

Passing through Germany 1928-1929. Fifth annual publication. Berlin, Terramare Office. 255 pp.

Rimscha, Hans von. *Im Roten Reiche der Rätsel.* Berlin, Riga, Bernhard Lamey. 63 pp.

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The New Conciliation and Arbitration Act in Australia

by

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In a series of articles published in the International Labour Review *in 1924*[1], *an account was given of the Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1904, under which a Federal Court of Conciliation and Arbitration was constituted " for the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes extending beyond the limits of any one State ". The Court attained a considerable measure of success, but in recent years its limited legal powers and the slowness of its procedure have combined with external conditions to lessen its effectiveness and lead to dissatisfaction with its working. After many proposals for reform had been made and rejected, an amending Act was passed in June 1928 which extends the powers of the Court, and makes many changes in its procedure and in the provisions laid down for industrial organisations. The substance of the new Act and its relation to present conditions are discussed in the following article, which has been contributed by an observer on the spot, who has made a special study of the subject. The survey of the facts is supplemented by the expression of the writer's views on the various elements of the problem, and on the psychological difficulties that lie behind the failure to reach an agreed solution.*

The First Conciliation and Arbitration Act

THE Australian workers had always, in the language of Sir Charles Dilke, demanded " a life of comfort and well-earned partial leisure against a life of mere existence "[2], but in the extremely fierce industrial warfare of the early nineties of the last century — notably the shearers' and the maritime strikes — they had

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[1] Vol. X, Nos. 4-6, Oct-Dec. 1924 : " The Development of State Wage Regulation in Australia and New Zealand ", by D. McDaniel Sells.

[2] *Problems of Greater Britain*, Vol. II, Part VI, ch. ii.

been hopelessly defeated.[1] Their sufferings, together with election successes, made insistent their demand that the State should interest itself in the quarrels between employer and employee, and Courts for the purpose of settling industrial disputes were instituted in South Australia and New South Wales. In 1900 the Australian colonies were federated under the Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act. By section 51 of this Act, the Federal Parliament was given power to " make laws for the peace, order and good government of the Commonwealth " in respect to 39 specific objects. One of these objects was " conciliation and arbitration for the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes extending beyond the limits of any one State ". With " unheard-of boldness and swiftness " the Commonwealth advanced to the " practical solution of a question over which the world was still speculating "[2] when in 1903 Mr. Alfred Deakin introduced the Conciliation and Arbitration Bill into the House of Representatives. That statesman hoped that this legislation would herald " the establishment of a people's peace ", and " a new phase of civilisation ". " The object of the measure ", he said, " is to prevent strikes. We now substitute a new regime for the reign of violence by endowing the State with power to impose, within limits of reason, justice, and constitutional government, its deliberate will upon the parties to industrial disputes. " He envisaged, as the result of the new methods, " as great a transformation as the creation of the King's Peace brought in civil society ".

The Bill had been prepared chiefly by Mr. C. C. Kingston, Minister for Trade and Customs in the first Federal Administration. It is an excellent example of the new Australian draftsmanship, where conciseness and clarity of diction distinguish it from the obscureness and clumsiness that are typical of the older legislation. Mr. Gilchrist was referring primarily to this measure when he wrote : " The Australian legislation on industrial disputes is the most interesting and most instructive in the world. "[3] The measure was passed in 1904 with barely a murmur of dissent, and a Court of Conciliation and Arbitration was thereupon constituted. The Federal experiment of endeavouring to stamp out strikes and

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[1] Viscount Bryce, in *Modern Democracies* (Vol. II, p. 246) writes : " Few countries had suffered more from strikes during the later years of the nineteenth century than had Australia. " In the conflicts of the early nineties, it is estimated that the men lost £400,000 in wages, while in business alone Australia lost approximately £5,000,000.

[2] Jane T. STODDART : *The New Socialism*, p. 243.

[3] Bulletin No. 23 of Indian Industries and Labour Series.

lockouts by legal machinery was thus begun in most auspicious circumstances. The framers of the Constitution had foreshadowed a comparatively restricted area within which the Court was to operate; it was designed by them "for dealing with the rare case of industrial crises of national magnitude"[1], leaving the States to provide for their own labour conditions. The political platform of Labour is unification rather than federation for Australia, and the trade unions helped in this policy of subordinating State machinery by approaching the Federal Court wherever possible in preference to State Arbitration Courts or Wages Boards. They had also grounds for believing that they would obtain a more favourable award from the Federal tribunal. The employers at first keenly resented interference in the conduct of their business and challenged the Court's jurisdiction on every conceivable point, but it soon became apparent that they preferred the Federal Court to the State authorities. They had realised that it was to their advantage to have conditions throughout Australia as uniform as possible, so that a manufacturer would not find himself prejudiced because a rival in a neighbouring State was working under a more favourable State award or law. Disputes were deliberately fabricated and made inter-State so that the Court would have jurisdiction. From being a court contemplated to deal with disputes essentially federal in nature, i.e. mainly those where workers in their occupation moved from State to State (e.g. shearers, seamen), it thus developed into the most important industrial authority in Australia. At the present time there is a disposition among the unions to return to the State authorities, because the Labour Party, which has held the reins of government in recent years in most of the States, has made it possible for the workers to obtain through State Acts of Parliament or awards better terms than formerly. The employers, however, are averse to this new movement towards decentralisation, so that their leaning towards the Federal Court is in marked contrast with their attitude of earlier years.

The Federal Arbitration Court and its Work

It cannot be said that the Court has fulfilled the bright hopes entertained by the fathers of the Constitution in respect of it. Dr. Jethro Brown (President of the Court of Industrial Arbitration

[1] Professor Harrison Moore, in *Australia: Economic and Political Studies* (edited by Meredith Atkinson), p. 73.

of South Australia) put the position fairly when he gave his opinion that industrial arbitration in Australia " cannot be said to have been an unqualified success ".[1] The reasons for this failure are due both to the limited legal powers that the Court has under the Constitution and to the inherent weaknesses of arbitration. The chief are perhaps :

(1) The difficulty of showing exactly where the Court's powers ended. This uncertainty provoked a sense of irritation and discontent among those workers who found themselves — unjustly as they thought, because the grounds were legal — denied access to the Court. For much the same reason there was, only too frequently, an absurd overlapping of federal awards with those of State Courts or State Wages Boards.

(2) The long delay in reaching the Court, due to the congestion of its business. This was mainly the result of the amplification of the Court's activity before referred to. At present there are about 180 matters pending before it ; but Ministries have not deemed it expedient to increase the personnel of the Court.

(3) The lengthy hearing incidental to applications. It is not uncommon for a matter to be actually in Court for the greater part of a year before the dispute is adjusted. The result is the imposition of a great strain on the funds of the organisations which are parties before the Court.[2]

(4) The inability of the Court to establish a common rule affecting all employees in an industry. By this is meant that the Court may not, after making a careful investigation, settle the conditions that are to apply to an undertaking and prescribe similar conditions for other undertakings. The Federal Parliament, by section 38 of the Conciliation and Arbitration Act 1904, purported to empower the Arbitration Court to declare that any condition of employment determined by any award in relation to any industrial matter should be a common rule of any industry in connection with which the dispute arises. The High Court, however, in Whybrow's case No. 3 held that this section was

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[1] *Australia ; Economic and Political Studies*, p. 213.

[2] The expenses in five proceedings were as follows : Waterside Workers' Federation of Australia *v.* Commonwealth Steamship Owners' Association and others (award 1914 and later matters to 1919) : £9,378 ; Federated Engine Drivers' and Firemen's Association of Australasia *v.* Colonial Sugar Refining Co. Ltd. and others (award and variations 1918) : £4,305 ; Australian Boot Trade Employees' Federation *v.* Whybrow and Co. Ltd. and others (award 1910) : £2,990 ; Federated Mining Employees' Association of Australia *v.* various mining companies (award and variations 1915-1919) : £3,550 ; Australian Postal Electricians' Union *v.* Public Service Commissioner and another (variations and award 1913) : £1,743.

ultra vires the powers of the Commonwealth Parliament under the Constitution.[1] The Court stood firmly by the old common-law meaning of arbitration as something binding specific parties before an arbitrator where a particular matter in which those parties were directly interested lay in dispute. In practice the Court had jurisdiction only over those employers who had unionists in their establishments. Employers who paid wages to men, all of whom were non-unionists, would be exempt from the Court's award, to the prejudice of other employers who, because they had engaged union labour, would be bound by the conditions prescribed by the Court. But the High Court has recently begun to whittle away the inconveniences attaching to the lack of a common rule. It has fully realised that the inability of the Arbitration Court to make a common rule in industry imposes an obstacle in the way of the co-ordination of industrial conditions throughout Australia. To scale down its own judgment in Whybrow's case, it is giving a wider meaning to the expression "industrial dispute". Thus in the Cinema case, the High Court made it possible to join as respondents persons who were not at the time employing members of any claimant union, merely because they were carrying on the business in which such members of the claimant union might possibly be employed.[2] This case establishes, in effect, that a union can summon any employer before the Arbitration Court even though he employs no unionists, and have him bound by the award in that industry. The mere fact that an employer is paying a less wage to his staff of non-unionists than is prescribed by the Court for unionists is sufficient to create a matter of substantial interest to the union, and, therefore, an industrial dispute within the meaning of section 51 of the Constitution. A union has now, in law, the means of compelling an employer to pay the same wage to all employees, so that there will be no inducement to an employer, by engaging non-union labour at lower rates, to discriminate against its members. An important advance has thus been made towards establishing a common rule in industry, and something has been done to loosen the shackles that have been encumbering the work of the Arbitration Court.

(5) The failure of the Court, in fixing wages, hours, and

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[1] Australian Boot Trade Employees' Federation *v.* Whybrow and Co. and others; 11 Commonwealth Law Reports.

[2] Burwood Cinema Limited and others *v.* Australian Theatrical and Amusement Employees' Association; 35 Commonwealth Law Reports.

general conditions of employment, to take economic realities sufficiently into account. In determining the minimum wage for unskilled labourers, the following principles have been followed by the Court : (*a*) the wage must be sufficient to enable a man, his wife, and three children to live a decent life as members of a civilised community ; (*b*) the wage varies with the cost of living as shown by the retail price index number supplied by the Commonwealth Statistician ; (*c*) the wage must be paid by all employers in the industry, large or small, prosperous or otherwise. If the business or the industry cannot pay a decent living wage enabling a man to live according to Australian standards, that business or industry has no title to existence.

It is objected that the Court, in adopting the cost of living as the test for the wages level, has placed wage fixation on a faulty foundation. Economists are strongly of opinion that in principle wages should be determined on the basis of productivity. The adjustment of wages by a cost-of-living index number can provide, at the best, only an approximate measure of productivity. The method adopted by the Court in the determination of wages is therefore hardly in accordance with the teaching of the economists. In spite of this, however, Australian wages have not been unduly raised or decreased. This is due, to some degree, to the fact that the Court, in adjusting the wage, has admitted evidence as to the prosperity of industry. A feature of the present has been the upward trend in wages ; but when rising prices are taken into consideration, the real wage does not show any marked increase, as the following figures serve to indicate :

Year	Real wage index (Base : 1911-1912 = 100)
1908-1909	98
1913-1914	98
1920-1921	102
1921-1922	113
1925-1926	110

As Mr. Dyason has said, " despite the paraphernalia of enquiries and formulae, tribunals have, for the most part, in the matter of wage rates, done little more than register the results of economic forces ".[1]

The workers, too, while accepting the cost-of-living principle as the determinant of wages, complain of the lag in the rate at which wages follow rising prices. This is, of course, due to the delays of Court procedure. They also find fault with the means

[1] *Economic Record* (of Australasia), May 1928, p. 114.

by which the Court measures the fluctuation in living costs. It is certainly difficult to make an index number or formula that will faithfully reflect alterations in the price level of goods and services constituting the regimen of the workers. There is, of course, the objection to wage fixation on the ground that it tends to reduce the volume of production per head. A minimum wage in practice becomes a standard rate, and the more qualified unskilled worker has no inducement to work beyond the capacity of the average man. Where there is no regulation of wages, a wage plasticity can reward the worker according to his capacity. Moreover, the man who, through age or disability, is not worth the basic wage to his employer, could find employment at a reduced figure if the employer were at liberty to pay him that wage. This can, of course, be done under Australian law, but a license must be obtained if a wage below the minimum is to be paid, and employers do not care for the trouble thereby entailed.

As regards hours and other conditions of employment, there is more reason to find dissatisfaction with the Court's work. Evidence for and against the variation of an award to obtain a curtailment of the working week or as to some usage in industry is always conflicting. Unfortunately, statistical data are not available even to the extent that they are in a plaint concerning wages. Each side obviously claims more than it really deems just or likely to be obtained. The unionist stresses the social side of a question; the employer the economic. The worker is concerned with distribution, as distinct from production, in which, of course, the employer is primarily interested. The Court has no intimate or first-hand knowledge of the facts and technique of industry, and must rely on the evidence submitted and the skill with which such evidence is canvassed and presented. In order to terminate a dispute, the Court is given to compromise as a *modus vivendi*. Its primary function being to prevent or settle disputes, there is a danger that the Court may unduly emphasise the standard-of-living aspect, to the prejudice of the employer in his competition with oversea rivals.

(6) The reluctance of unionism to renounce the strike weapon, in spite of the fact that the Act declares a strike to be illegal under heavy penalty. The Attorney-General made it clear from his correspondence with trade unions that they were not prepared to forgo, unconditionally, the use of the strike.[1] Hitherto, however,

[1] Parliamentary Debates, 1927-1928, p. 5280.

it has not been found practicable to fine a union under the Act for refusing to obey the Court.

(7) The widening of the breach between employer and employee. How far the marked feeling of resentment parting workers and employers, which certainly exists in Australia, is due to the presence or policy of the Court, it is impossible to estimate. For the want of harmonious co-operation between employer and employee, which has often been commented on by foreign observers[1], the unions are not solely to blame. On the other hand, Australian employers are not so eager, as it is often alleged, to get rich quickly with a view to early retirement. Employers in Australia are more and more realising their responsibilities, as welfare services and the provision of opportunities for their employees' advancement bear increasing testimony.

Undoubtedly the present industrial position as between employer and employee is unsatisfactory. The Prime Minister (Mr. Bruce) was adverting to this when he said : " There is something wrong with our present system of industrial conditions." Reports of banking and mercantile institutions draw attention to it with monotonous regularity. Still, it is easy to exaggerate the situation : oversea journals that describe Australia as the land of strikes and civil turmoil are labouring under a serious misapprehension. The actual working days lost in Australia through strikes during the period 1923-1927 are shown in the following table :

Year	Working days lost	Wages lost
		£
1923	1,145,977	1,275,506
1924	918,646	917,699
1925	1,128,570	1,170,544
1926	1,310,261	1,415,813
1927	1,712,000	1,666,000

These figures compare very favourably with those of Great Britain in the corresponding period. The average number of working days lost in Australia was 0.7 per wage earner per annum ; in Great Britain it was 2.37 per wage earner per annum. Again, allowing for the difference in population, Australia has — at least since the disastrous days of 1890-1891 — experienced no such gigantic break-down of industry as Great Britain suffered in the transport strike (1920), and the general strike and coal dispute

[1] Cf., for example, Emeritus Professor Thwing : *Human Australasia*, p. 45. Cf. also the article by Mr. P. A. Molteno in the *Contemporary Review*, Aug. 1927.

(1926). The major Australian strikes have been confined to the engineering, transport, and coalmining trades; in other industries strife is exceptional.

Proposals for Reform

It has already been pointed out that some of the present disappointment with the work of the Court is due to its limited equipment. Attempts have been made by Act of Parliament to enlarge its powers to enable it to meet an even wider class of case than it has been dealing with; but these Acts, in so far as they purported to add anything of importance, were declared *ultra vires* by the High Court. This pointed the way to a referendum, under section 128 of the Constitution, for an alteration of the Constitution in such a way that the Federal Parliament could enact the necessary measures to increase the powers of the Court. On three occasions the people were asked in this way to approve of an alteration in their Constitution, but on each occasion consent was refused. The last referendum was taken in 1926, during the life of the present Ministry. Had it been successful, the Court could have been empowered (*a*) to make a common rule in industry, (*b*) to control all corporations whether inter-State in character or not, (*c*) to make provisions for all industries whether inter-State or not, (*d*) to vary conditions in the different States as circumstances warranted. In short, the Federal Parliament would have been able to give the Court full control over industry in Australia.

The Act of 1928 and its Provisions

The Bruce-Page Ministry represents a coalition of the Nationalist and Country Parties, and it was returned to power in 1925 by a substantial majority in both Houses on a distinct promise to remedy the defects in the arbitration system. But the failure of the 1926 referendum compelled it, in redemption of its pledge, to frame legislation within the limits permitted under the Constitution. The new Bill — the twelfth amendment of the original Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1904 — was drawn up after careful consultation with many interests, including, of course, employers and employees, and embodied some of the suggestions offered by the Commonwealth Council of Federated Unions. It was introduced into the House of Representatives on 17 December 1927 by the Attorney-General, who explained that his Bill had

both a negative and a positive object : to avoid strikes and lockouts to the greatest degree possible and to build a " vigorous and positive co-operation between employer and employee towards a definite object — the success of the particular industry and the well-being and contentment of the community generally ".

Early in 1928, the Prime Minister proposed to convoke an Industrial Peace Conference to consist of representatives of the more important bodies. The Australian Council of Trade Unions demanded, however, as a condition precedent to its participation : (*a*) the immediate withdrawal of the Bill from the House ; (*b*) the right to endorse all worker delegates to the Conference. It also took umbrage at the proposed composition of the body : it objected, for example, to the presence of delegates from the Australian Women's National League, on the ground that it was a non-industrial association. These demands were refused by the Ministry and the Conference was not held. On 16 May debate on the measure was opened by the Leader of the Opposition, and the Bill thence occupied the greater part of the House's attention till it was passed on 12 June, against vigorous and even bitter opposition by the Labour Party. It was forthwith reported to the Senate, and passed by it on 14 June.

The substance of the Act falls into the following classification :

(1) The prevention of overlapping between Federal and State tribunals.

(2) The attempt to correlate the awards of the Court with economic realities.

(3) The introduction of a system of voluntary arbitration as distinguished from compulsory arbitration.

(4) The further application of the principle of conciliation.

(5) Improvements in court procedure.

(6) The reponsibility of organisations for the conduct of their officers and members and for the general observance of awards.

(7) Provisions relating to the rules of an organisation.

(8) The introduction of the compulsory ballot into industrial organisations.

(9) Provisions designed to secure the observance of awards and of the provisions of the Act and to protect the Court in the performance of its functions.

An explanation in outline of these headings will now be attempted.

The Prevention of Overlapping between Federal and State Tribunals

Two Conferences were held (in 1922 and 1923) by the Federal Ministry with the Premiers and Attorney-Generals of the States to terminate " the clashing jurisdictions, conflicting and overlapping awards, uncertainty, delay, expense, loss and other unsatisfactory features of the present machinery for dealing with industrial disputes "; but no working agreement was reached. In some industries there are more than 30 State and Federal awards in simultaneous operation; in the State of Victoria alone, there are 60 industries subject to concurrent Federal and State awards. Employers' organisations and trade unions can choose the award that best suits them; the result of this duplication of authority is, in the language of the Attorney-General, an " incoherent and chaotic state of affairs ". Under the new Act, the Court must decide and affirm whether it is more desirable that it should deal with the dispute rather than a State authority. Should it so declare and make an award, then any State award or order thereon is null and void. Furthermore, once the Court has dealt with a certain matter, a State industrial authority is *ipso facto* precluded from jurisdiction in that matter, even though it may be possible for it to make an award that is not in direct conflict with the Federal award. Provision is made whereby a conference, if advisable, between judges of the Federal Arbitration Court and State industrial authorities, for the purpose of securing co-ordination between orders or awards made under Federal and State Acts, may take place. These principles should be made clear: (*a*) if there is a conflict between Federal and State awards, then, if the Federal award is within the constitutional power, it shall prevail; (*b*) even if there be no such direct conflict or inconsistency, that is, even where it is possible for the parties to obey both awards, nevertheless, the State award cannot stand if into that field the Federal Court has entered. Any doubts as to the power of the Federal Parliament to declare this principle of delimitation and demarcation were removed by the High Court decision in the case of Cowburn *v.* The Clyde Engineering Company.[1] In this way it is hoped that the problem of duplication will, in its worst features, solve itself by preventing one party from playing off a Federal award against a State award and *vice versa*.

[1] Reported in 37 Commonwealth Law Reports.

The Necessity for correlating the Awards of the Court with Economic Realities

The Act does not affect the practice of the Court in fixing the basic wage for unskilled workers, with the implication that there shall be margins for skill. But in the determination of wages (apart from the basic wage and the preservation of margins for skill) and in the matter of hours and conditions of labour (apart from the requirements of general health and sanitation) — piece work, bonus work, payment for holidays, time off for smoking, travelling time and other allowances claimed over and above the normal wage — the Act insists that the Court's practice shall change. Hitherto the Court has prescribed wages and conditions according to what it considers the Australian standard of living, leaving it to the legislature, by tariff duty or bounty, to enable the industry to comply with the award. The Court is now directed to make its award in these matters within the limits of present economic possibilities; it must take into account the economic capacity of the industry and the economic condition of the community as a whole. The Act does not help the judges to determine what the capacity of industry and the condition of the community are; but the Court must no longer suggest that the Houses should find ways and means to meet its awards. When an award is made with regard to present economic realities, it will be the duty of Parliament to determine whether it is desirable that higher wages or shorter hours should obtain in the industry. If the legislature be so minded, it can grant a bonus on export or raise the tariff duty; but it should not be constrained to grant a bounty or increase the tariff because the Court has already prescribed a wage or working week beyond the present capacity of industry or the community.

A provision not unlike the one just considered, because it is designed to safeguard the public interest, is to be found in the Forty-four Hours' Week Act (1925) enacted by the Parliament of New South Wales. That provision is thus worded: "The ordinary working hours in any industry may be increased beyond those prescribed in this section if the Court or Board is of opinion that, in the public interest, such increase should be allowed."

The Court is further obliged, in making its awards, to provide as far as possible for uniformity throughout an industry in relation to hours of work, holidays, and general conditions in that industry.

This should facilitate the harmonious working of big factories. To the McKay Harvester Works, over 30 awards now apply, containing differing provisions relating to rates of pay, hours of labour, holidays, etc. A standardisation of operating awards should be a boon in the management of big concerns such as this.

The Development of a System of Voluntary Arbitration as distinct from Compulsory Arbitration

The Act, by introducing the principle of voluntary arbitration, makes an approach to the Canadian system (Industrial Disputes Investigation Act) and the American State Boards of Arbitration and Federal Railroad Labour Board and the systems in force in Denmark and Norway. Provision is made by which employers or employees may submit any industrial matter to a judge or conciliation commissioner of their own choosing. In other words, there is made available the skilled service of an impartial arbitrator appointed by the Commonwealth. For this purpose a dispute need not necessarily exist, as it is not a question of invoking the Court's jurisdiction. The result of such voluntary arbitration proceedings is not, however, enforceable in law, for the Court's power, under the Constitution, begins only where there is a " dispute ". The observance of a determination — it is to be known as a " determination " to distinguish it from a binding award — will rest upon the honour and good faith of the parties concerned. This innovation — voluntary arbitration under the Court's aegis but gratuitous in character — must be distinguished from the conciliation proceedings already known to the law, for conciliation, if fruitful in result, will be binding on the parties.

The Further Application of the Principle of Conciliation

Under the original Act, agreements arrived at between the parties may be filed in the Court, and they thereby become the legal equivalent of the award of the Court. The Court has avowedly encouraged such agreements, preferring to arbitrate only if the conference or preliminary negotiation has proved abortive. The new Act makes a further attempt to emphasise the prevention of disputes as distinct from their settlement. By virtue of an Act passed in 1926, a conciliation commissioner was appointed with

power to deal with industrial troubles on the basis of conciliation. His work has given satisfaction and his Report shows that he has been able to handle many disputes, and thus prevent them from going into court. The Act of 1927-1928 seeks to enlarge this principle by the constitution of conciliation committees. These committees are to consist of a chairman who is paid for his services, and an equal number of representatives from both sides, and are to be appointed by the Chief Judge of the Court. In the appointment of these representatives, the Chief Judge must take into consideration any recommendations submitted by the interested organisations. There need be no actual dispute to enable these committees to act; a committee, should it foresee friction, may handle the matter before it grows into a dispute. It is hoped that the Court's time, as well as the funds of the organisations, will thus be economised. Agreements reached in a committee can be certified to and filed in Court, and have then the full force of an award. Should a committee be unable to agree, a majority may make a recommendation to the Court as to the terms of a proposed award. The Court, after giving the minority an opportunity to be heard, may then convert the recommendation, or a modification or variation thereof, into an award.

The Act also assists the conciliation principle in another way. Under the original Act, boards of reference consisting of employers and employees may be appointed to deal with matters referred to in an award. The new Act enables these Boards to handle any matter which they think will affect the good relations of the parties in reference to an award. A decided step has thus been taken by the Act to substitute the principle of the round table for that of the formal atmosphere of the Court environment. Many who ultimately believe that conciliation will absorb arbitration, nevertheless consider that the Court, by its mere presence, will serve a useful purpose. The parties know that if conciliation fails, compulsory arbitration will follow. Thus Mr. W. P. Reeves, in moving the second reading of the first New Zealand Conciliation and Arbitration Act, said that " unless you have in the background an Arbitration Court, the Conciliation Boards will not be respected and they will be virtually useless ". Others hold that conciliation can function without compulsory arbitration standing behind the chair; they think that it would be strengthened if the Court were abolished, because there would be fuller and franker discussions. Parties would not fear to disclose information on the ground that it might be used to their prejudice in subsequent Court proceedings.

Improvements in Court Procedure

Procedural reforms of importance are three in number :

(*a*) The introduction of the representative action so long confined in England to the courts of equity. By making certain persons representative respondents, the Court is enabled to make a representative order where it appears to it that there are numerous persons having a common interest in any matter. The object is, of course, to curtail the considerable expense associated with the service of the necessary court papers upon a large number of respondents when a matter is before the Court.

(*b*) The permission accorded to barristers and solicitors to appear in the Arbitration Court if the Court grants them leave. Under the original Act, they could be briefed only if the other side gave its consent. This consent was not always available ; but various devices have been resorted to in order to defeat the provision. Union secretaries, for example, study law and with this equipment appear in Court to argue the case for their union. Correspondingly, legally qualified practitioners are made directors of companies, and, *qua* employees of that company, are eligible to represent the organisation in court. Sometimes a student at law, having completed his course of studies and passed all requisite examinations, deliberately abstains from being admitted to the Bar and is thus not disqualified from holding a brief in the Arbitration Court. A more absurd case is that of a practitioner who has been struck off the roll of barristers and solicitors for misconduct or other cause. The punishment and the stigma placed upon him serve to qualify him to practise in a Court where the reputable practitioner is debarred. The Act should remove this anomaly, and at the same time make available the best trained men for this important service to the community.

(*c*) The policing of awards by Commonwealth officers. The Act provides for the appointment of inspectors whose duty it will be to see that the Act and the Court's awards are being observed. Hitherto representatives of both sides have seen to this, and sometimes unpleasantness and irritation have followed from the indiscretion of these representatives.

The Responsibility of Organisations for the Conduct of their Officers and Members and for the General Observance of Awards

There are, in the new Act, clauses the object of which is to regularise the position of the trade union in law by making the principle of vicarious liability applicable in practice to it. It is well established in English law that the corporation or artificial person is responsible for the acts of its servants and agents acting within the scope of their employment and the powers of the corporation. In Australia the trade union, upon registration, becomes a corporation known to the Arbitration Act, and the new Act endeavours effectively to fix the union — as well as the employers' organisation — with liability for the acts of its members and servants. The original Act prohibits, under a penalty of £1,000 in the case of both the guilty organisation and the guilty member or servant, all inter-State strikes and lockouts; but the penalty has never been enforced. It was far too heavy a fine with which to visit an erring member or servant. In the case of an organisation, it is extremely difficult to prove, by legally admissible evidence, that a union has authorised a strike. Press reports are not evidence and no unionist will dare come forward and say what has taken place at a union meeting. But it is comparatively easy to show that an employer has brought about a lockout. The penal clause could thus be enforced against an employer but not against a union, and this was generally realised. The penalty has been effective in preventing lockouts but not strikes. The new Act retains the penalty of £1,000 in the case of an organisation or an employer: but in the case of the individual member or servant in default the penalty is £50. These are, of course, maximum penalties. The Court, when about to apply the penalty, is directed to take into account as mitigation any *bona fide* efforts that have been made by the committee of management of the organisation or any of its officers to prevent a commission of the offence, and provision is made by which penalties imposed on the individual may be recoverable out of the organisation funds up to a certain amount. A union, however, would always pay the full amount of an official's fine.

By exaction of the penalties it is hoped to terminate the irritation tactics commonly spoken of as the "sectional strike", which has become, in recent years, a feature of Australian industrial warfare. When the workers desire better conditions, they strike

in A's establishment, enabling his rival, B, to capture A's trade. The union provides strike pay, and when A is forced to concede the demand, work is ceased in B's establishment. The whole strength and resources of the union are concentrated at a given time on one or two selected firms or factories. Sometimes, by preconceived plan, the men walk off a vessel a few minutes before the time fixed for departure, with the casual remark that they may be back in a few hours, or, if not, the following morning. They know that the ship cannot sail without them. Under the new Act, the Court may, upon application for that purpose, declare that in such circumstances a strike exists. Such a declaration permits other employers in the industry to lock out their employees, without being guilty of a breach of the Act; in other words, legal sanction is given to the lockout. Similarly if an employer attempts a partial lockout, the Court may, on application for that purpose, authorise a strike of the union for the whole industry. In respect of the strike and lockout the parties are thus placed by the law upon an even footing.

Furthermore, if a substantial number in a organisation refuse to accept employment, either at all or in accordance with existing orders or awards, such orders or awards may be cancelled by the Court. An organisation may expel any of its members guilty of a breach of the law, and failure to exercise this power is a ground upon which the Court may deregister that union. Should an organisation attempt to evade the Act by introducing a domestic rule contrary to any award, or should the members observe an informal understanding that is in violation of an award, the Court may similarly decree deregistration.

Provisions relating to the Rules of an Organisation

The new Act makes it imperative that the rules of a union shall provide for certain matters, and the rules covering these matters may not be altered except by a majority vote taken by secret ballot. The Court may disallow any rule which (*a*) is contrary to law or to any order or award, (*b*) is tyrannical or oppressive, (*c*) prevents or hinders members from observing the law or the terms of an order or award, or (*d*) imposes unreasonable conditions upon membership or application for membership. It is mandatory that every organisation shall keep the following records: (*a*) a list of its members showing their names and postal addresses; (*b*) a list of the names, postal addresses, and occupations of the

members of its committee of management, of its officers, and of every person holding, whether as trustee or otherwise, property of the organisation; (c) an account, in proper form, of its receipts and payments and of all its funds and effects. A copy of these records, certified by a statutory declaration of the secretary or other prescribed officer of the organisation to be correct, is to be filed with the Registrar of the Court. Accounts of the organisation are to be audited yearly by a qualified person. If the organisation does not appoint a qualified person as auditor, the Court may appoint an auditor at the organisation's expense. The Registrar of the Court may at any time require a special audit of the accounts of an organisation, and for that purpose may appoint a qualified person whose remuneration shall be a charge on the Commonwealth Treasury. It is expected that by these means members will be given a firmer hold of their affairs and be placed in possession of information as to the manner in which their contributions and levies are being disbursed. Any member of an organisation who is an officer thereof and has been expelled because his actions amount to a contravention of the Act may not hold office in that organisation again without the Court's leave.

The Act, by repealing a provision of the original Act, enables members to resign from a union during the pendency of any dispute or matter before the Court. It was undoubtedly a hardship that a man should be legally liable to pay union dues even though he had left the industry. Some large unions are practically always before the Court either in the matter of an award or on application for interpretation, so that a man has often found it difficult to resign.

The Introduction of the Compulsory Secret Ballot

In the view of many — both among employers and employees — the most important clause in the Act is section 45, which introduces the compulsory ballot into industrial organisations. It may be noted that of the 149 unions registered under the Act, only 7 at present provide satisfactorily for an effective secret ballot. It is provided in section 45 that any ten members of an organisation may, when any vote is taken or about to be taken in any election of the committee or of officers of the organisation or in respect of any resolution proposed for adoption by the organisation, demand that the vote be taken by secret ballot. If the demand is not acceded to, the Court may authorise the taking of a ballot under the supervision of its officer, provided that the demand

is *bona fide* and " relates to a matter of substantial importance ". If the union does not hold this ballot as directed, it is liable to a penalty of £500. Furthermore, to prevent intimidation any ten members may make application for a secret ballot by letter enclosed in an envelope marked " Secret Ballot " and enclosed in another envelope addressed to the Registrar of the Court. The Registrar is not to disclose to any person other than a judge the names of the members so applying, and the judge may then, if satisfied that the applicants are members and that the application is *bona fide* and " relates to a matter of substantial importance ", give directions for the taking of a ballot as before. The ten need not apply jointly : if within a period of 21 days there be, in all, ten applicants, the Court may grant the request. Moreover the Court may, on its own initiative, at any stage of the proceedings in relation to a dispute, order a secret ballot to be taken upon any matter upon which it deems it desirable that the opinion of the organisation should be obtained. If the Court believes that any secret ballot of an organisation has not been fairly held, it may declare the ballot void and order a fresh ballot under the control of its own officer. A penalty of £50 or, in the alternative, imprisonment for six months may be imposed on any person who (*a*) obstructs the taking of the ballot as directed, (*b*) uses any form of intimidation to prevent any person from voting, (*c*) falsely represents in an application that he is a member of an organisation. Any officer of an organisation who refuses to assist in the taking of the ballot by withholding the register and lists of the members is subject to the same penalty.

The principle of the secret ballot is, of course, recognised by American industrialists, and the Australian Industrial Delegation, which was appointed by the Commonwealth Government to investigate the methods and working conditions in industry in the United States, in its Report[1] draws attention to this. The Beeby Act of New South Wales (1918) contains, too, provisions for the holding of a secret ballot, and there is also in force legislation in New Zealand to the same end. But the machinery provisions in section 45 of the Federal measure are distinctly more elaborate than the New South Wales and New Zealand devices.

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[1] Page 63.

Provisions designed to secure the Observance of Awards and of the Provisions of the Act and to protect the Court in the Performance of its Functions

The Act makes available a penalty of £20, or, in the case of an officer of a registered organisation, £100, should any person prevent, or endeavour to prevent, any person from offering or accepting employment or working in accordance with the terms of an award or order of the Court by any of the following methods : (*a*) violence to the person or property ; (*b*) threats ; (*c*) pecuniary penalty or injury ; (*d*) intimidation of any kind, to whomsoever directed ; (*e*) abusive or insulting language ; (*f*) declaring or joining with other persons in declaring goods or places or persons or undertakings or positions " black " ; (*g*) any other form of boycott or threat of boycott. If an organisation imposes any penalty or disability upon a member because he is working in accordance with the terms of an award, it is liable to a fine of £500. Any person who at any meeting of an organisation or at any public meeting moves, seconds, or puts to the meeting any resolution abusive or insulting to the Court or one of its judges may be penalised to the extent of £20. For printing or publishing any report inciting to commit a breach or to non-observance of the Act or containing language insulting or abusive to the Court, the penalty is £100. Any person creating a disturbance or taking part in a disturbance near any place where the Court is sitting may be fined £100, or be imprisoned for six months, or both.

Moreover the Court, on application, may direct that evidence relating to trade secrets or the profits or financial position of any party or witness to Court proceedings be taken in private, and such evidence may not be published without an order of the Court. For contravention of this provision as to publication, the penalty is £500 or imprisonment for six months. Protection may thus be given to those who, by their evidence, assist the Court.

It should be observed that the Act makes no attempt to stifle legitimate comment or report of its proceedings. But of late there is a marked habit in certain unions to pass resolutions recording " disgust " with the " biased " awards or orders of the Court. The Press, too, on both sides, has not been restrained in its criticism. The more important Australian newspapers are anti-labour in tone and inclined to carp when an award favours the workers. Some of their criticism of the Court's decision in the Forty-four

Hour Case was most partial and embarrassing. There is thus ample ground for the relevant provisions in the new Act.

Labour and Other Opinions on the Act

The measure was received by the Parliamentary Labour Party and the unions with the greatest resentment. The Party during debate announced its intention of making the Bill an issue at the next election and, if returned to power, of repealing its principal sections.

The Party reads the measure as a gigantic attack on trade unionism and the industrial conditions and privileges won by the workers. It refuses the assurance of the Attorney-General that the Act will " give the greatest assistance to trade unionism that has veer been offered by any legislature in Australia ". It is particularly incensed with the sections that impose penalties, that provide for inquisitorial procedure such as the compulsory ballot and the auditing of union accounts, that instruct the Court to correlate awards with economic realities, and that aim at legalising the extension of disputes to meet the case of the sectional strike. The latter provision it describes as the negation of conciliation and arbitration, in that a lockout, in certain circumstances, is legalised. Because the workers in two or three factories, in desperation, strike, the other employers in the industry may approach the Court for a declaration of a lockout. The penalties, they say, cannot be collected. They quote the opinion of a former Liberal Premier of New South Wales, Sir Charles Wade, that " the introduction of penalties in the form either of imprisonment or of fine is an illusory protection ".[1] Section 45 is described as "ludicrous" and "unworkable ". Labour declares that it has no quarrel with the principle of the secret ballot ; on the contrary, it claims that it is an integral part of the union machinery. It regards section 45 as unnecessary and insulting, an " unwarranted interference with the management of industrial organisations ". Attempts to enforce the section, it is said, will involve the unions at the behest of a disgruntled few in such expense and embarassment as to render them unworkable. Mr. Charlton and Mr. A. Green (both of whom represent mining constituencies) estimate the minimum cost of holding a ballot for the Northern Miners' Union of New South Wales to be

[1] *Australia, Problems and Prospects*, p. 36.

£200. Mr. Charlton fears that the more important unions will find themselves compelled to appoint two permanent officials whose duties will be confined to the taking of ballots. Mr. W. W. Hughes, the Nationalist War Prime Minister of Australia, than whom, perhaps, because of his intimate connection over a long period with industrialism, no one better understands the psychology of the Australian worker, goes the length of saying : " I do not know a union in the country — certainly none that I have ever been connected with — that would take a vote on any question if the Court ordered a secret ballot. " Of course, if the union members refuse to vote by general understanding, the section will become farcical. If a secret application is made to the Court for a ballot, how is a judge to satisfy himself that the applicants are *bona fide* members of the union? Regulations under the Act do something to establish indentification by providing that such applications should be supported by a statutory declaration setting forth the facts relied on by the applicants and accompanied by membership cards, contribution cards, pence cards, union badges or buttons, receipts for subscriptions, or other evidence that the applicants are members of the organisation. The statutory declaration is also to set out facts relied upon to establish the *bona fides* of the applicants. But union lists are ever changing ; membership badges are trafficked in, and organisers have been known to redeem them in pawnshops. Some unions do not issue receipts for subscriptions paid. Thus in the coalmining industry it is customary to hold a meeting of the union on the Monday before pay-day. At that meeting a levy is struck, and as each man receives his wages at the pit-head, he pays his contribution to the union representative who, however, gives no receipt. In spite of the regulations, therefore, the risk of impersonation and misrepresentation remains a source of danger. There is, furthermore, the objection of time. Suppose that, at the Court's dictation, a ballot is undertaken. Membership of one of the unions — the Australian Workers' Union — is over 150,000. A great deal of preparatory work in regard to printing, etc., is involved, and the ballot papers must be despatched in the case of outback districts by special messenger. Officials of this Union consider, from their own experience, four and a half months as the minimum during which a ballot which is to embrace all seasonal workers will have to remain open.

A case, however, can be cited where a compulsory ballot has been successfully undertaken ; this was the action of the New South Wales Arbitration Court in exercising its powers under the Beeby

Act. Because of strife between officials and members, the Breadcarters' Union was rapidly growing unworkable. Supervised by the Department of Labour and Industry, a ballot for the election of union officials was taken. The result was the gaining of all important executive posts by candidates nominated by the rank and file, and so majority rule was restored. In all about 900 votes were recorded. It will of course be observed that in this instance a comparatively small union only was concerned.

The Labour intelligentsia contends that industrial peace will not be gained with the present Act; it is possible only with a comprehensive survey of the situation. Inquisitorial reform of union management and the recasting of the Court's methods and procedure are insufficient. Further, unemployment due to other causes is working far more havoc than the strike or lockout. Unemployment is due mainly to the inability to obtain work and not to the wilful rejection of it by strike. The Report of the Development and Migration Commission (1928) upon unemployment and business stability in Australia points out[1] that at the date of the last Census (April 1921) " 72,882 males — 52.26 per cent. of the total unemployed males — were classified as unemployed through scarcity of work, while 4,511 — 3.24 per cent. of the total unemployed males — were classified as unemployed through industrial disputes ". Goverment, therefore, should give its attention to the major causes of unemployment and the abuses of capitalism as well as to the abuses of unionism.

Future Prospects

Admittedly the settlement of industrial disputes is not, strictly speaking, judicial in character; it is, as Viscount Bryce has it, " a function that is really rather administrative than judicial ".[2] The danger, of course, of placing industrial disputes within the cognisance of a court is that the traditionally good name of justice may grow somewhat tarnished in the eyes of the community if its awards provoke discontent in any quarter. To this it may be answered that the High Court of Australia, like the Supreme Court of the United States, has not uncommonly, as interpreter of the Constitution, to disallow Federal or State legislation as *ultra vires*, and it has therefore to run the gauntlet of keen political

[1] Pages 34-35.
[2] *Modern Democracies*, Vol. II, p. 216.

criticism. It cannot be said that either of these Courts has suffered in its prestige or in the respect of the people. And it is scarcely conceivable that an administrative board would inspire a similar confidence as arbitrator in industrial disputes; disinterestedness and impartiality are associated in the public mind with the judicature rather than with the administration.

The Attorney-General firmly believes that State intervention in matters industrial has come to stay in Australia, so that the abolition of the Court itself would " create new problems without any satisfactory means at hand for solving them ". He confesses that his Act does not furnish " anything like a complete solution to all industrial troubles "; but he claims that it is a " definite contribution to the cause of industrial peace and progress ". No fabric of importance, of course, has yet sprung flawless from the brain of one generation; Mr. Deakin realised this when, in explanation of the original Act, he said: " It is not a matter of to-day or to-morrow — in the sense of a single measure or device. "

Since the passage of the Act through the legislature, however, an invitation issued by the Associated Chambers of Manufacturers of Australia to Unionism to meet them in conference to discuss unemployment and industrial matters generally has been accepted by the All-Australia Trade Union Congress. It has been suggested by union officials that out of this session there may develop some new machinery of direct contact between employer and employee that will make resort to the Court unusual. If this suggestion fructifies, then one of the larger objects of the Act — the encouragement of conciliation — will have been won. Should, however, the new collective bargaining break down, it is difficult to see how the Act can function with success. For its success, both parties must approach the Court in a spirit of peace; there must be no scuffling on the temple steps. To enforce the Act in the teeth of a hostile Unionism will, at the best, drive resistance sullenly underground into unlawful associations. Filling the gaols may bring about a legal peace; but it will be the illusory peace which according to the gibe of the Roman satirist[1], prevailed in Britain during the first century — *solitudinem faciunt, pacem appellant.*

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[1] TACITUS: *Agricola*, chap. 30.

Business Forecasting in the United States:

Recent Developments by Individual Companies[1]

by

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Under modern conditions, production and trade are mainly undertaken with reference to future requirements. As these requirements cannot be known beforehand, the business man is faced with the necessity of making forecasts. The degree of accuracy with which these are made determines to a large extent the success of the undertaking, both as regards effective planning and profitableness. It also has important bearings on the stability of the business man's demand for labour and on the effectiveness with which he can satisfy consumers' needs. In view of these vital consequences, much attention has been given in recent years to methods of ensuring greater accuracy in forecasting. This is especially true of the United States of America. During a recent visit to that country, the writer had opportunity to study the forecasting systems of a number of business undertakings. The present article gives an outline of the main problems involved and the methods applied.

Development of Forecasting

SYSTEMATIC forecasting is based mainly on a study of the relationships and trends of various series of economic statistics. The practical possibilities and social significance of such a study are indicated in the following quotation from a recent statement by Mr. Hoover, Secretary of Commerce, and now President-elect of the United States. Referring to the business situation in his country, he said :

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[1] The general problems and methods of business forecasting are surveyed in *Economic Barometers*, a report submitted to the Economic Committee of the League of Nations by the International Labour Office. Studies and Reports, Series N (Statistics), No. 5. Geneva, 1924.

The past five years have been remarkable for generally sustained prosperity, without the violent fluctuations which have characterised most of the previous periods of great activity. In large measure this has been due to greater knowledge of the current facts of business and a growing experience in utilising this knowledge. The small business man particularly has been benefited through the use of current statistics. . . .[1]

Both in the United States of America and other countries, analysis of business statistics for forecasting purposes is mainly a post-war development. In the United States, the adoption of systematic methods of fore casting by individual undertakings has been largely due to the stimulus given by the bitter experiences of the 1920-1921 slump. Very many companies were entirely unprepared for the sudden break in prosperity which occurred and were caught with large stocks of products on hand. As a result of rapidly declining prices these stocks greatly depreciated in value and entailed enormous losses.

The shock caused by these losses resulted in an attitude of great caution on the part of business men and also in a desire to try any method which might enable them in the future to foresee approaching changes in business prosperity. They therefore turned eagerly to the results of investigations undertaken by a number of organisations with the object of establishing systems to forecast the general course of business activity.[2] Some of these organisations had, in fact, predicted the depression of 1920-1921 and also the recovery of 1922. One of them — the Harvard Economic Service — had also conducted researches into pre-war conditions and had shown that its system would have enabled forecasts to be made of the various booms and depressions during the decade 1903-1913.[3]

Business men were much impressed by these successes and began to place considerable reliance on the predictions made by one or other of the forecasting services. Their confidence was, however, soon shaken, for in 1923 and subsequently the forecasts of well-known services were not always confirmed by actual experience, while comparisons of forecasts made by the various services

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[1] Foreword to *How to use Current Business Statistics* (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census; Washington, 1928).

[2] Among the best known of these organisations are the Harvard Economic Service, Babson's Statistical Organisation, Brookmire's Economic Service, and the Standard Trade and Securities Service of the Standard Statistics Company.

[3] An outline of the Harvard system of forecasting is given in the International Labour Office report on *Economic Barometers*. For full details the publications of the Harvard Economic Service should be consulted.

showed that their predictions were often conflicting. Consequently the " science " of business forecasting fell under a cloud and for a time was discredited in the eyes of large numbers of business men.

The reasons why the forecasts were unreliable are mainly two-fold. First, scientific forecasting was, and still is, at an early stage in its development. Its methods and conclusions were to be regarded as experimental and tentative rather than as established and irrefutable. There had been a tendency to place too much reliance on factors which had been operating for a number of years without allowing sufficiently for new elements of the post-war period. Thus the Harvard forecasts were based largely on the relative movements of three series of statistics representing respectively the average prices of stock exchange securities, the general course of business activity, and money rates of interest. A rise in stock exchange security prices, especially if accompanied by declining money rates, was regarded as forecasting several months ahead an improvement in business prosperity; the converse was also considered to be valid.[1] Statistical investigations had shown that these sequences had frequently occurred in the past and it was assumed that they would recur in the future. Such an assumption seemed not unreasonable. A rise in stock exchange security prices usually represents the cumulative opinion of the financial world that an improvement in business prosperity will shortly take place, and although allowance must be made for many individual errors in judgment, the financial world as a whole is likely to be specially well informed with regard to probable trends of business prosperity. Its opinion that an improvement is probable will be strengthened if money rates are declining, as easier credit conditions tend to stimulate business activity. From 1923 onwards, however, the sequences on which the Harvard forecasts were based ceased to manifest themselves with their former regularity. This was mainly due to a systematic regulation of business activity by the Federal Reserve Banking System; tendencies toward undue expansion or contraction of business were held in check by restriction or easing of credit conditions. For a time adequate allowance was not made by various forecasting services for this and other new factors.

The second reason why predictions with regard to changes in the general course of business activity failed to give satisfaction

[1] It is some sequence relation such as this, where the movements of one series regularly precede and therefore predict the movements of a second series, which forecasters desire above all to find, as it enables plans to be adapted closely to forthcoming changes in business conditions.

to business men was that inevitably the situation of particular industries was merged in the general average, while no account was taken of the special position of the individual undertaking. Yet these are the elements in which the ordinary business man is most vitally interested. The movements of business as a whole may be of primary interest to the economist and the politician, but they are of only secondary importance to the business man. He is interested above all in his own undertaking and in the development of the industry to which it belongs.

Need for Special Forecasts

It is evidently necessary for the business man to keep in touch with general movements of business activity. Fluctuations in business activity are in part the result of the operation of general factors which affect most, if not all, industries. Thus the depression of 1920-1921 was due to the influence of general factors and few industries escaped their effects. In fact, detailed studies of the booms and depressions of the economic cycle show that to a large extent separate industries and also individual undertakings show variations in prosperity broadly similar to those of business in general.

Nevertheless, although general booms and depressions are usually reflected in the separate industries and undertakings, the effects may differ considerably in intensity, while there are likely to be exceptions. This will be especially true in the case of minor fluctuations of general business activity. Practically all industries and undertakings are likely to show changes in prosperity somewhat similar to those of industry as a whole when there are well-defined general waves of boom and depression. But if the fluctuations of general business are only slight, it becomes of especial importance to study the situation of the separate industries and undertakings. Thus many industries and undertakings may be in a prosperous condition and an extension of their scale of production justified at a time when business as a whole is slightly depressed. The converse is also true.

It follows that the importance of making special forecasts will become greater if, on the lines indicated above, the United States Federal Reserve Banking System, and also the central banks in other countries, succeed by their credit policy in rendering steadier the general development of business activity, or, in other words, in diminishing the extent of business cycle fluctuations. On the one

hand, it is evidently more difficult to forecast general changes if variations from normal development are minor in character than if they are wide. On the other hand, as already indicated, the necessity for studying the fluctuations of special industries and branches becomes of primary importance when general fluctuations are only slight; these special fluctuations may be considerable, even though the general flow of business as a whole is fairly steady.

The supplementing of forecasts for industry as a whole by forecasts for special branches is particularly important from the social point of view. The greater the accuracy of the forecasts made by individual business men, the more stable will be the demand for labour. Therefore, in so far as unemployment is aggravated by fluctuations of prosperity, effective forecasting by individual business men will result in a diminution of unemployment. Also the more accurately the business man forecasts the future demand for his products, the more effectively will consumers' requirements be met.

Developments by Individual Companies

Although the early failures of services making general forecasts had resulted in a widespread belief that the so-called "science" of business forecasting could be of little value, a number of business men were of the opinion that the idea was sound. They recognised, however, that to give the best results the statistical and economic investigations on which forecasts are based must be suited to the situation of each separate industry and business. Accordingly a number of companies in the United States have undertaken systematic reviews of all the data available, as a basis for forecasts to be used by the directors in framing their policy and establishing their budgets for the ensuing period. At the same time the general forecasting services have reviewed their systems and extended their researches. The result of these developments has been to improve the probabilities of forecasting with reasonable accuracy. Also the limitations as well as the possibilities of forecasting are now recognised and consequently exaggerated claims are no longer made.

The investigations of the various companies which have adopted systematic forecasting methods have been greatly facilitated by the work of the general forecasting services, and especially of the Harvard Economic Service. These services, in addition to launching the idea of systematic forecasting and publishing general forecasts, have made valuable studies of the problems and methods

of the statistical investigations which lie at the basis of scientific forecasting. Thus they have indicated the necessity of studying separately the long-period or secular trend of development, the cyclical fluctuations, and the seasonal variations of business activity. Unless these are isolated and considered separately, it is difficult to determine what factors are operating and to estimate their relative influence on future business activity. For example, an increase in the production of pig iron during the first six months of 1928 may be due to seasonal demand, to cyclical improvement of business activity, to the general trend of development of the country in consequence of increasing population and wealth, or to a combination of these causes. In order to enable each of these movements to be studied separately, the Harvard and other forecasting services have called attention to and have employed statistical methods which enable each movement to be isolated. They have also described and made use of methods by means of which the degree of correlation of the movements of different series of statistics may be established. It is often important to determine the extent to which a rise or fall in one series of statistics, e.g. production of pig iron, is preceded, accompanied, or followed by a similar movement in another series, e.g. building contracts. If statistical analysis shows close similarity in the movements of two or more series, some causal relation may be looked for which may be of value for forecasting purposes. On these lines, certain of the general forecasting services, by calling attention to problems of method, have provided a valuable basis for the developments undertaken by individual businesses and have served to ensure the wide adoption of sound statistical analysis.[1]

Forecasting Criteria used by Individual Companies

As already indicated, practically all businesses are more or less affected by general factors. Therefore, in making forecasts for individual businesses, general factors must be brought under review. They include factors of a financial character, such as rates of interest for money, which constitute an element in cost of production. A second important factor is the general course of business activity,

[1] It is outside the scope of the present article to describe the statistical methods used in analysing and comparing data for forecasting purposes. They are outlined in *Economic Barometers*, published by the International Labour Office; more detailed descriptions are given in the publications of the Harvard and other forecasting services, and also in text books on statistical methods.

as a high rate of activity is likely to result in increased demand for the products of each of the different industries. A third general criterion, to which considerable attention is given, is the course of stock exchange prices. The course of these prices is regarded as of special importance for the purposes of forecasting, since, as indicated above, it represents to a considerable extent the opinion of the financial world with regard to future business prospects. Another criterion of importance is the general movement of wholesale prices. In considering the movements shown by these and other criteria, the series of statistics compiled by Government Departments and business organisations are utilised.[1] In the case of the larger business corporations which have established forecasting systems, the many series of statistics available are carefully examined and often combined by special methods considered by the corporation to be the most appropriate for its own purposes. The smaller business undertakings are frequently not able to undertake the expense involved, and therefore make use of the surveys of general business activity made by one or other of the forecasting services.

In addition to general factors affecting the business, special attention must be directed to criteria peculiar to the industry of which the business forms a part. Among the criteria which must be studied are the course of prices for the raw materials and finished products, and changes in the volume of production and of stocks. It is often particularly important to study the relation between changes in prosperity in the industry concerned and changes in the prosperity of allied industries. In some cases it may be that a change in activity in an allied or associated industry will give warning of an approaching change in the industry concerned. Thus, changes in the total value of building contracts awarded are often followed after an interval by corresponding changes in the demand for various fittings used in buildings.[2]

Of special interest are the criteria which concern the individual undertaking itself. The undertaking is in possession of information frequently not available to outsiders, and there are advantages in

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[1] The International Convention adopted by the International Conference relating to Economic Statistics organised by the League of Nations, Geneva, November-December 1928, is designed to increase the quantity and international comparability of information compiled and published by Government department as to trade, production (including indexes of industrial production), wholesale and retail price indexes, and certain other classes of economic statistics.

[2] The American Radiator Company, for example, finds statistics of building contracts awarded of great value in indicating forthcoming changes in the demand for radiators.

making the fullest use of this information. Among data of value for forecasting purposes are reports from agents of the undertaking in various parts of the country. These agents are in close touch with conditions of demand, and although they may be unduly influenced by psychological factors, their reports regarding such conditions cannot fail to be of value. These reports may be usefully supplemented by a study of the economic position of the class or classes of persons who consume the firm's products. Thus, a firm which produces a commodity largely consumed by workers' families will be aided in forecasting probable demand by an examination of changes in earnings in the various localities in which it is interested. Also no firm will neglect to study the actual orders received for its products, making allowance for the possibility of cancellation of orders. Of particular importance is the relation between the cost of production per unit of output of the undertaking, and the selling price of the product. Above all, the individual undertaking, unless monopolistic in character, must give close attention to the situation of its competitors; the forecast of the firm's probable sales will be affected by the strength or weakness, and especially by the price policy, of the undertakings with which it is in competition.

With regard to these criteria, the accumulated information, and especially statistical series as to past experience, cannot fail to repay study and provide a basis for future action. Such study of past experience with the object of establishing general rules and tendencies for future guidance constitutes the essential basis for systematic forecasting. But when past experience has been fully utilised there is still a large measure of uncertainty with regard to the future. Although the trends and relations of the past are likely to be maintained to a considerable extent in the future, there is always the possibility of new factors coming into operation, or of variation in the importance of existing factors. With regard to these, past experience has often little or nothing to contribute and their influence cannot be determined by scientific methods. Outside the scope of scientific forecasting properly so called are the effects of decisions made by the undertaking itself, for example changes in management or policy or a period of special advertising of the undertaking's products. In some of these cases past experience may be an aid in estimating probable effects, but there are no established trends by which judgment may be guided. All these considerations inevitably lead to the conclusion that systems of scientific forecasting can never provide anything in the nature

of automatic prediction. They can, however, furnish the business man with the soundest possible basis for his judgment regarding the future, utilising for this purpose all that past experience can contribute.

Review of Systems Adopted by Various Companies

Using criteria on the lines indicated above, a number of individual undertakings in the United States have introduced forecasting systems, the results of which have been of considerable value. An outline is given below of the systems adopted by three undertakings which have highly developed forecasting arrangements, and are representative of different fields of industry in the United States. Attention is directed only to the chief features of the systems and to the most characteristic of the criteria used; the statistical methods employed are not discussed. The descriptions given are limited almost entirely to forecasting methods, and these are to be clearly distinguished from the use which an undertaking makes of a forecast in planning its future production. The problem of business planning once the forecast has been made lies quite outside the scope of this article.

The systems reviewed are those of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, the General Motors Corporation, and the Walworth Manufacturing Company. Other industrial undertakings have introduced systems on somewhat similar lines to those described. Also most of the large banking corporations make detailed forecasting studies. The systems of the banking corporations are, however, largely concerned with the operation of general factors, and are similar in character to the studies made by certain of the general forecasting services. They are therefore not included in the present survey.

It should be emphasised that large numbers of business undertakings both in the United States and in other countries make forecasts on the basis of similar data to those used by the undertakings mentioned below.[1] The distinction between firms which have and those which have not adopted systems of scientific

[1] Some indication of the use made of current business statistics in the United States is given in: *How to use Current Business Statistics* (United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census; Washington, 1928). The degree of success in forecasting attained by certain companies in the United States is indicated in an article on "Industrial Forecating" by Charles P. White, Ph. D., published in *The Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, No. 228, Sept. 1928, pp. 109-125.

forecasting lies not so much in differences in the data brought under review, as in the extent to which the data are subjected to systematic statistical and economic analysis with a view to the establishment of general trends, relations, and sequences of movement.

The American Telephone and Telegraph Company

This company, which is nation-wide in its activities, has developed a detailed system of statistical investigation as basis for its forecasts. Owing to the size of the undertaking and the character of the services which it renders, forecasts are made not only for periods of a few months or years but also for longer periods, often of fifteen to twenty-five years.

These long-period forecasts, which may be considered first, are made in order that the Company may plan the location and installation of its telephone system and other plant in such a way as to meet most satisfactorily the future requirements of a rapidly growing community. Unless plans are made many years ahead, serious difficulties would arise, e.g. inability to secure the most suitable sites for plant.

In establishing the long-period forecasts careful analyses are made with regard to the probable development of each locality.[1] The most important element studied is the growth of population, and estimates are made of the probable total population of each city or other urban district fifteen to twenty-five years hence. In making these estimates the influences which have caused the past growth of each city and the influences which are likely to operate in the future are examined. The two chief factors are: (1) the excess of births over deaths, this being indicated by the population statistics; (2) the attraction of the locality to population from other areas, and especially the attraction of industrial developments. In many American cities the second of these factors has been found to be the more important.

When an estimate has been made of the future total population of any city, a classification is undertaken into economic groups. A main distinction is drawn between residential buildings and business premises. In the case of the former, estimates are made

[1] A detailed account of the methods adopted in making these long-period forecasts is given in an article in the *Harvard Business Review*, April 1923: "Forecasting the Future Market in a Large Community", by E. L. STONE, Jr., Commercial Survey Engineer, American Telephone and Telegraph Company.

of the probable numbers of families occupying dwellings of different rentals, there being a close relation between the rental of a dwelling and the demand for telephone service. Similarly, estimates are made of the total number of business firms of each class — offices, wholesale and retail establishments, manufacturing undertakings, and workshops. The estimates both for residential population and business firms are made for subdivisions of each city, an intimate knowledge of local conditions being necessary for this purpose.

These analyses enable a picture to be drawn of the development of each city and of the country as a whole a considerable number of years ahead. Such a picture, together with estimates of probable technical improvements in telephone and telegraph equipment and forecasts of the probable changes in demand for and use of telephone and telegraph services, enables comprehensive plans of future developments to be established.

Closely related to the long-period forecasts, but based on different statistical analyses, are forecasts for periods ranging from several months to several years. These short-period forecasts form the basis for budget plans of year-to-year operating expenditures. They enable the administration to determine the most favourable opportunity to issue new capital. Orders for materials required for new construction can be placed a sufficient time in advance, supplies can be purchased in large quantities when prices are relatively favourable, and workers can be trained to meet the growing requirements of the undertaking.

The short-period forecasts are based on a detailed review and analysis of business conditions throughout the country, a monthly summary being compiled.[1] The data reviewed include : (1) financial conditions ; (2) industrial activity in the chief industries, covering production, employment, wages, and commodity prices ; (3) trade and transportation ; (4) agricultural conditions ; (5) reports from associated companies regarding business conditions in the areas in which they operate. Charts are constructed to show the movements of the various groups over a period of years.

One of the most important compilations for the purpose of short-period forecasting is that undertaken in connection with the

[1] The statistical methods employed to deal with seasonal variation, trend, and the correlation of movements are similar to those described and used by the Harvard Economic Service.

construction of an index to show the course of general business activity. The Company constructs its own index. Its statistical studies have shown that there is usually a close relation between the course of general business and the movements of most series of telephone data. Forecasts are therefore made of the broad movements of general business activity and these are used as basis for forecasting the course of telephone development. All that is attempted is to use the general business curve, together with estimates of the influence of various factors likely to operate in the early future, as a means of forecasting the broader cyclical movements. The forecasts indicate the present outlook as to the main trends; they do not pretend to give indications with regard to minor fluctuations around the main trend. The forecasts are revised every few months as new data become available.

The general business index or curve is a composite of a number of important indexes of industrial activity. It shows movements in the *volume* of business activity, the influence of price fluctuations being eliminated.[1] This elimination is important, as indexes which include the effects of price changes do not show satisfactorily the variations in industrial activity alone. For example, an increase in the *value* of pig iron produced may be due to an increase either in *volume* of production or in *price per unit* or in both. There are obvious advantages in studying separately changes in volume and in prices, and it is for this reason that the influence of price fluctuations is eliminated from the general business index.

The series included in the general business index cover the production of pig iron, steel ingots, bituminous coal, paper, lumber, sole leather, and electric power, cotton consumption, the activity of wool machinery, net ton-miles of railway traffic, and railway car loadings. In combining these separate series into an index of general business, weights are applied so that each series exerts on the final index an influence appropriate to its own importance. Forecasts are also made of the course of wholesale prices and of other important series.

Responsible officials of the Company are of opinion that the system of statistical analysis and tentative forecasts which has

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[1] Long-period trend and seasonal variations are also eliminated in order that attention may be concentrated on cyclical fluctuations. Separate studies are made of long-period trend and seasonal variations, and the results are combined with those derived from the study of cyclical fluctuations for the purpose of constructing the final forecast.

been developed is indispensable to the successful administration and operation of this large and complex organisation.[1]

General Motors Corporation

The General Motors Corporat on, like the Amer can Telephone and Telegraph Company, s one of the giant bu nesses of the United States. It is primarily engaged n the manufacture and sale of automobiles, automob le parts, and accessories. A number of makes of cars of different grades are produced by separate divisions, while specia divisions are organised or the production of accessories.

For planning future production, a system of orecasting has been developed.[2] This system differs from that of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company in that it is limited to short-period orecasts. In the motor ndustry, forecasts covering a considerable period of years are not essential, while attempts to make such forecasts would hitherto have met with little success owing to the rapid changes which have taken place in the development of the industry.

An estimate is made each year for the twelve-month period from 1 August to 31 July, of the number of cars likely to be sold to the public by the entire automobile industry. The estimate is subdivided into sales of low, medium, and high priced cars. It is based primarily upon actual experience and trends of sales during recent years. Allowance is made for the effects of the probable condition of general business activity during the coming year, there being a close relation between business prosperity and the demand for automobiles. With regard to the trend of sales, account is taken of increase of population and wealth of the country. In estimating the influence of changes in the general business situation, the Corporation does not compile a special index of business activity. It utilises instead the statistical reviews and forecasts made by

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[1] The Western Electric Company, which supplies the American Telephone and Telegraph Company with materials and equipment, uses the forecasts of the latter Company as basis for its own construction and operating programmes. It also examines closely the market situation and prospects of the chief raw materials which it uses, e.g. copper and lead.

[1] Cf. " Financial Control Policies of General Motors ", a paper read before the Annual Convention of the American Management Association in New York City, March 1926, by Albert BRADLEY, Assistant Treasurer, General Motors Corporation.

other bodies, but supplements them by its own appreciation of the economic factors likely to affect the course of general business during the ensuing twelve months.

The next step is to determine from the estimated total sales of low, medium, and high priced cars of the whole automobile industry the probable proportions which the Corporation's grades of cars, or "car divisions", will be likely to represent. In determining these proportions account is taken of the effect on sales of the production of new models, of changes in prices, and of the competitive situation of other producers.[1] Account is also taken of stocks of second-hand cars. These general forecasts are considered in relation to estimates prepared by each car division of the Corporation of probable operations during the year, including sales, costs, profits, and capital requirements. In all cases the selling price policy of the Corporation is of primary importance, for, until this is formulated, no satisfactory forecasts can be made.

The forecasts for a year ahead provide valuable assistance in the establishment of the general plans and policy of the Corporation, but are not considered of sufficient accuracy as a basis for the actual programme of production. This programme is constructed for periods of four months only Each car division makes each month a forecast of sales, stocks, and production requirements covering the current month and the three succeeding months. These forecasts are examined by the Central Office of the Corporation and accepted, or if necessary modified, in association with any division concerned, in order to bring them into line with the general programme and forecasts of the Corporation as a whole.

Of special importance in preparing the programme of production is the effect of seasonal variation. The demand for cars is highly seasonal, being greatest in the spring; according to recent data compiled by the Corporation, sales in April are nearly four times as great as in December or January, while March, April, and May together represent 37.5 per cent. of the year's sales.[2] Statistics of sales during recent years have been used to provide a measure of seasonal variation month by month. On the basis of this

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[1] An interesting example of the effect of the last of these factors was that afforded during the recent change in the model of Mr. Henry Ford's cars. During the process of remodelling, the cessation in the production of Ford cars enabled other producers to plan the production of and to sell a considerably larger number of cars than normally.

[2] Curiously enough, although most automobiles are used throughout the year and closed cars now represent 75 per cent. of all cars sold, seasonal variation has shown little change in recent years.

information production is spread more evenly over the year than if related to the demand conditions of the moment; extreme fluctuations in the use of plant and labour are thus avoided.

The forecasts covering four months are modified each month in the light of actual experience. For this purpose the Corporation maintains close contact with the demand for its cars. Reports are sent every ten days to each car division by its dealers showing the number of cars sold, the number of orders, and the number of cars in stock. This information, received in all from a total of some 18,000 dealers, enables the production programme to be adjusted closely to market conditions and is also used to modify the estimate of sales for the year.

It is claimed that the result of this system of forecasting and future planning has been that " increases or decreases in production schedules have been less violent than heretofore ". In other words, there has been greater stability in the employment of capital equipment and of labour. At the same time the consumer has benefited from the reduced costs, while the return on investment has been unimpaired.

The Walworth Manufacturing Company

This Company, which manufactures a variety of metal goods, has for several years undertaken systematic forecasting on the basis of a detailed statistical and economic analysis of past and present experience.[1] Near the end of each quarter the chief officers review the business situation and establish a production programme for the two succeeding quarters. Each class of product and the situation of each works is considered.

The plans are based on a survey of the general business situation and prospects, together with a review of indexes for those branches of industry which make use of the Company's products. Thus, fluctuations of orders received for the Company's products (i.e. the *quantities* ordered) are carefully examined and related to indexes of business prospects in general, there being a close correspondence

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[1] The products of the Company include valves, pipe-fittings, and tools of cast iron, malleable iron, brass, and steel. An account of the forecasting methods adopted is given in *Budgeting to the Business Cycle*, by Joseph H. Barber, Staff Assistant to President and Head of Planning and Statistics Section, Walworth Manufacturing Company (New York, 1925). Cf. also *The Economic Control of Inventory*, by the same author.

between changes in the prosperity of business in general and changes in the demand for the Company's products.

Research has not yet revealed any index external to the industry the movements of which regularly precede and therefore predict fluctuations in demand for the products of the Company. Nevertheless, by studying the movements of an index of general business conditions two important aids in forecasting are obtained. First, if the symptoms of a change in prosperity as shown by the Company's own indexes are confirmed by similar indications of the general index, a sounder basis for judgment regarding the future is provided than if the Company's indexes were the sole guide. Second, the relation of the Company's index to general movements enables a judgment to be formed as to the influences operating to cause a change in prosperity. On the one hand the cause may be within the Company itself; on the other hand it may be some external factor, the influence of which, once the factor is recognised, can be evaluated. Thus by careful statistical and economic analysis the possibilities of sound judgment regarding future prospects are increased.[1]

Of individual series external to the Company, particular attention is given to statistics showing building contracts awarded, many of the products of the Company being used in construction work. Among internal series, in addition to fluctuations in the quantity of goods ordered by purchasers, importance is attached to the width of the Company's gross profit margin, i.e. the relation between costs of production and receipts from sales. A narrowing of the margin between these two elements often gives warning of an approaching decline in prosperity. It is true that certain elements which enter into cost of production are subject to modification according to decisions of the Company. This is the case also with selling price, which largely affects receipts from sales. As already indicated, criteria which are largely affected by decisions of an undertaking are not among the most appropriate for determining the general economic trends and relationships upon which scientific forecasting is mainly based. But both costs of production and receipts from sales include elements which are influenced by external economic movements over which the individual undertaking often has little control, e.g. the cost of raw materials, money

[1] In making these various comparisons, the influences of seasonal variations and long-period trends are isolated from cyclical movements, each of these three groups being studied separately.

rates, and wage rates. Also the experience of many firms has shown that, to a considerable extent, in a period of intense production during a boom, production is less efficiently organised than in more normal times. Attention is concentrated mainly on increasing the output of the undertaking; less care is given to maintaining machinery at a high standard of efficiency, workers with less training and efficiency are brought into employment, and wastes in organisation occur. At the same time the prevailing optimism tends towards over-production, with the consequence that prices begin to decline, or at least to rise less rapidly. It is not surprising, therefore, that a narrowing of the margin between costs of production and receipts from sales should give warning of a decline in business prosperity.

In addition to detailed reviews of indexes of business activity for the country as a whole in relation to data internal to the Company, studies are made of conditions in various localities in which the Company is specially interested. Among the series used to indicate local conditions, the one considered to be the most valuable is the bank " debits to individual accounts " in the chief cities of the locality. Finally, the forecasts based on statistical and economic analysis are considered in relation to sales estimates made by the Company's representatives in the different districts. Both sets of data are used in the establishment of the final estimate on which the production programme and budget plans are based.

As regards the influence of its forecasting system on stability of production and employment, statistics of the Company indicate clearly the valuable results obtained.

Conclusion

Developments on the lines described above both in the United States and also in certain other countries have led to progress in reducing business fluctuations. It would appear from the experience already gained that if business forecasting is to be of the greatest value with a view to ensuring increased stability and co-ordination of business activity, three related branches of investigation into economic statistics and factors are necessary. First, systematic general reviews should be made in order to determine the trends of general business activity. As a rule these may best be undertaken by independent research organisations or by bodies which are representative of the business community as a whole and the results should be published widely. Large business corpora-

tions may, however, often find it preferable, as in the case of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, to conduct these investigations themselves rather than use the compilations and conclusions of outside bodies.

In the second place, general reviews and studies of trend require to be supplemented by special reviews and studies for each branch of industry. These may be undertaken by employers' organisations in each industry, by the central offices of cartels or trusts, or in some cases by joint bodies representing employers and workers. Such bodies not only possess the requisite knowledge of the special features of the industry, but are often in the most favourable position for securing additional statistical information from their members or components.

The third important stage is the utilisation by individual companies of the reviews and forecasts regarding the course of business activity as a whole and the special studies and estimates as to the future prospects of particular industries. These data, related to the position of the individual company, would provide a basis for forecasting the volume of production necessary to meet future market requirements. A wider adoption of such methods would be conducive to greater stability of production with its obvious advantages to employer, worker, and consumer, and would constitute the necessary complement to the action taken by central banks with a view to restricting within the narrowest limits the fluctuations of the business cycle.

The Employment of Women in Japanese Industry : I

by

Iwao F. Ayusawa, Ph.D.

The rapid rise of Japan to the position of a great industrial Power has been accompanied in recent years by important developments in labour legislation and in industrial conditions generally. In view of Japan's importance as a competitor on the world market, these developments have been watched with much interest in other countries, and have been the subject of animated discussions at several sessions of the International Labour Conference. Very little reliable information on the matter, however, in any languages other than Japanese has hitherto been available.

In accordance with a resolution of the Seventh Session of the International Labour Conference (Geneva, 1925), the International Labour office has for some time been engaged on a documentary enquiry into working conditions in certain Asiatic countries. In connection with this enquiry the Office has already published a study by Mr. Ayusawa containing an account of present conditions and labour legislation in Japan.[1] *The question of the employment of women, which was only briefly discussed in this study, is of speical importance at the present time, partly on account of the very large proportion of women in some of the leading branches of Japanese industry (about eighty per cent. of the workers in the textile industry are women and girls), partly because much of the labour legislation on modern lines which has recently been put into force applies especially to women workers. The following article, in which Mr. Ayusawa has collected a large amount of detailed information on the conditions of employment of women in Japanese industry, is therefore of much interest. The first part, given below, contains a statistical survey of the position of women in Japanese industry (including mining). Conditions of employment in general (including hours of work, wages, hygiene and safety, maternity protection, and the dormitory system) and the relevant legislation will be described in subsequent numbers of the* Review.

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[1] *Industrial Conditions and Labour Legislation in Japan*, by Iwao F. Ayusawa. Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 16. Geneva, 1916.

Statistical Survey

THE importance of women in the productive life of Japan is apparent from the statistics of women in various industries and other fields of work. A striking fact is that in Japan the aggregate number of women engaged in all fields of labour exceeds that of men ; and further that certain basic industries are largely dependent on female labour. In order, however, to show the situation in its proper perspective, it is necessary to give, first of all, the general census figures.

According to the most recent available information,[1] out of the total population in 1920 of 55,849,000 in Japan proper,[2] the persons in gainful occupations numbered 27,089,000 (49 per cent. of the total), and their dependants 28,760,000 (51 per cent.). Of the persons with an occupation, 9,553,000 (35 per cent.) were either employers of labour or independent masters working on their own account, while 1,566,000 (6 per cent.) were their helpers or assistants, and the remaining 15,970,000 (59 per cent.) were wage earners working under the direction of the masters or their helpers. The distribution of men and women wage earners in various industries was as follows[3] :

Industry	Wage earners	
	Women	Men
Agriculture	5,895,000	3,125,000
Fishing	40,000	350,000
Mining	98,000	348,000
Manufacturing	1,199,000	2,431,000
Commerce	586,000	523,000
Transport	53,000	594,000
Free labour	122,000	141,000
Others	174,000	291,000
Total	8,167,000	7,803,000
	15,970,000	

The above table shows that the excess of female over male labour in Japan is principally due to the preponderance of women in agriculture, the only other field of work in which women workers are more numerous than men being commerce. It must not be overlooked that out of the total of 15,970,000 workers, as many as 9,020,000 are in agriculture, suggesting incidentally that in spite of

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[1] The figures used here are those of the First National Decennial Census of 1 October 1920. The results of the first five-yearly interim census taken in 1925 are available but do not give the details necessary for the present purpose.

[2] The total population in October 1925 was 59,736,822.

[3] Cf. Statistical Bureau : *Rodo Tokei Yoran*, 1927 edition, p. 2.

the progress of industry in the last few decades Japan still remains an agricultural country; and it is a notable fact that of these 15,970,000 workers, 5,895,000, or more than one-third, are women engaged in agriculture, representing nearly two-thirds of all women workers in the country.

From these figures it will be seen that at least numerically the bulk of the problem of female labour must be in the agricultural sphere. It happens, however, that in Japan agriculture, fishing, and some other occupations have been affected to only lesser degrees by the rise of modern industrialism than some others such as transport, mining, and more particularly the manufacturing trades. It will of course be hazardous to presume that in the former group the conditions of labour are either more humane or less strenuous than in the latter, especially if it is granted that the use of machinery which characterises modern industrialism has tended to lessen the physical toil of labour, while in any industry unaffected by industrialism the form and method of work remain crude, primitive, and laborious. Nevertheless, for the purpose of the present article, we must limit our enquiry to the latter group of industries, or industries which have changed greatly either by the adoption of the western factory system or by the extensive use of mechanical appliances.

Now if we decide from these considerations to include in our enquiry factories, mines, transport and communication, and casual labour, we find that Japan has approximately 4,704,000 workers in all, of whom 3,159,000 are men, and 1,545,000 or nearly one-third are women, distributed as follows [1]:

Group	Number of workers	
	Men	Women
Factories :		
State owned	104,133	29,434
Municipally owned	4,920	849
,, ,,	1,578[1]	288[1]
Privately owned	715,115	850,471
,, ,,	273,835[1]	128,508[1]
Total (factories)	1,099,581	1,009,550
Mining	228,678	64,237
Transport and communication	392,828	26,774
Casual labour, etc.	1,437,645	444,464
Grand total	3,158,732	1,545,025
	4,703,757	

[1] Number of workers in small factories where the Factory Act does not apply.

[1] Returns of the Bureau of Social Affairs for 31 December 1927. Cf. *Rodo Jiho* (Labour Gazette), April 1928.

Women in Factories

Before describing the conditions of work in factories, we must examine in more detail the numbers of women employed in various factories.

The preceding table shows that at the end of 1927 the total number of women employed in factories was 1,009,550. Of these women 128,796 were unprotected by the Factory Act, because they were employed in workshops or small factories which employed regularly fewer than 10 persons, and in which the work performed was not considered of a dangerous nature or injurious to health, so that they were not visited or inspected regularly by the factory inspectors.

It should however be recalled that the scope of application of the Factory Act has recently been enlarged so as to afford more extensive protection on much higher standards than in the past to women and young persons. The original Factory Act of 1911[1] (which came into force in 1916) was applicable only to workplaces or mills where 15 or more persons were regularly employed or where the work performed was dangerous or injurious to health. The Act was revised in 1923 so as to apply to workplaces where 10 (instead of 15) or more persons are regularly employed, and the revised law (the Factory Act Amendment Act of 1923[2]) has been in operation since 1 July 1926. It is therefore interesting to compare the number of women covered by the revised Factory Act with the number covered by the original Act.

The best basis for this comparison is the statistical table (reproduced on page 197) published by the Bureau of Social Affairs of the Japanese Government[3], though the figures given there for the period subsequent to the enforcement of the revised Factory Act refer to an earlier date than the figures cited previously. The table also shows the distribution of women workers over the various industries.

The table shows that the revision of the Factory Act increased by 22,573 (from 27,076 to 49,649) the number of workplaces subject to regular inspection with a view to enforcing the protective provisions of the law, the increase in the total number of workers

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[1] *Bulletin of the International Labour Office* (Basle), Vol. VI, 1911, p. 267.
[2] INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Legislative Series*, 1923, Jap. 1.
[3] *Rodo Jiho*, Feb. 1928, p. 6.

STATISTICS OF FACTORY WORKERS IN JAPAN BEFORE AND AFTER THE REVISION OF THE FACTORY ACT

Industrial group	Before revision (31 December 1925)				After revision (1 October 1926)				Increase	
	Factories	Workers			Factories	Workers			Factories	Workers
		Men	Women	Total		Men	Women	Total		
Textiles	8,998	177,960	780,733	958,693	11,692	191,577	809,764	1,001,341	2,694	42 648
Machines and tools	2,651	180,173	15,333	195,506	4,462	206,329	16,781	223,110	1,811	27,604
Chemicals	2,498	109,829	44,701	154,530	3,490	121,319	49,825	171,144	992	16,614
Food and drink	1,638	46,924	15,304	62,228	2,860	62,206	15,939	78,145	1,222	15,917
Miscellaneous	2,869	80,422	31,608	112,030	4,978	97,043	39,271	136,314	2,109	24,284
Electricity, gas, metal refining	132	9,837	339	10,176	442	13,040	347	13,387	310	3,211
Employing less than 10 persons, but dangerous or unhealthy	8,290	31,005	6,076	37,081	21,725	73,095	7,001	80,096	13,435	43,015
Total	27,076	636,150	894,094	1,530,244	49,649	764,609	938,928	1,703,537	22,573	173,293

employed being 173,293, and of women alone 44,834, giving a total in October 1926 of 938,928 women under the protection of the Factory Act.

Employment of Children

In Japanese labour legislation, the minimum age for factory work was first laid down in the Factory Act of 1911, while the Mining Regulations of 1916 fixed the minimum age for mining workers. But when these factory and mining laws were revised in 1923, a new and separate Act[1] fixing a minimum age for all industrial and mining workers was passed, which also came into force on 1 July 1926.

The legal minimum age for industrial employment is now 14, instead of 12. By raising the standard minimum age to 14, Japan has come up to the general standard of the Washington Convention of 1919 fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment. The only exception (except a transitional provision referred to below) is that if a child has completed the course at an elementary school before reaching the age of 14, then it may, by obtaining a special permission, be employed while under the age of 14, but under no circumstances before reaching the age of 12. Employers who contravene this provision are liable to a fine which may be as much as 1,000 yen.

The new Act has thus not only raised the minimum age by two years, but has also doubled the fine for violation of its provisions. The law has also been extended so as to apply not only to factories and mines but also to all industrial and mining undertakings, public works, construction, transport by road, rail, or inland waterway, dock work, and other undertakings, so that the employment in a gainful occupation of any Japanese child under 14 years of age is now prohibited, so long as the child has not finished the elementary school course.

It must, however, be explained that until very recently child labour was legally permitted under certain restrictions.

There is, to begin with, a transitional provision in the Minimum Age Act of 1923 whereby children between the ages of 12 and 14 who were employed when the Act came into force were allowed to remain at work, even if they had not completed the elementary

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[1] *Legislative Series*, 1923, Jap. 2, and 1926, Jap. 1 (A).

school course, so long as the employer provided them with educational facilities. But the number of children in this category is practically zero. In October 1926, that is, three months after the Minimum Age Act came into force, there were only 4,134 such children of both sexes, and this was a decrease of 2,575 as compared with the previous year.[1] Compared with a total of more than two million workers actually employed in factories and mines, this number might be considered negligible, apart from the fact that at present, more than two years after the coming into force of the Minimum Age Act, all these children have reached the legal age of 14, so that their employment now comes within the ordinary provisions of the law.

A point which may be recalled is that section 2 of the old Factory Act which was in force till 1926 allowed the employment of young persons over 10 years of age in " light and easy work ". Some five hundred children, mostly girls, used to be employed in the match-making industry, chiefly in and around Kobe and Osaka, in virtue of this provision. But the employment of these children ceased entirely when the Minimum Age Act came into operation.

The effectiveness of the application of the Act is apparent from the reports of the inspectors. In the first six months after the Act came into force, there were 789 cases reported of the employment of children below the minimum age. Warnings were at once given by the inspectors and 11 employers were fined for not discharging the children immediately upon receipt of the warning.[2] A total of only 11 penalties among 789 offenders cannot be said to be many. It appears, however, that this somewhat lenient attitude was deliberately adopted in the first half-year in view of the fact that the law was being applied for the first time in industrial and mining undertakings other than factories, and allowance was also made for the lack of legal knowledge of the employers. It is reported that the police and the school authorities, especially the teachers in primary schools, participated loyally in the work of spreading a knowledge of the new Act.

The enforcement of the law in new fields is made more difficult by the extreme poverty prevailing in some rural districts. It has recently been found that in a large number of cases the earnings of the children are an indispensable part of the income of the family for their subsistence. In such cases the enforcement of the law

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[1] *Rodo Jiho*, Feb. 1928, p. 6.
[2] *Ibid.*, Jan. 1928, p. 17; Feb. 1928, p. 12.

is liable to be hampered by the resentment it provokes and the objections raised. Early in 1928 there was an official statement in the Labour Gazette[1] that the apparent hardship resulting from the strict application of the law indicates the urgent need of enacting another law for the relief of the poorer workers. It has since been stated in the Japanese press that the Bureau of Social Affairs has begun the study of a Poor Relief Bill to be submitted to the coming session of the Imperial Diet.[2]

Employment of Young Persons

The problem of the employment of young persons, and in particular of young women workers in their adolescent or pre-matrimonial period, is far more acute than that of the employment of children, which may be considered as almost wholly disposed of. The difficulty lies in the peculiar situation of the basic industry of Japan, namely, that the textile mills are operated almost exclusively by young women before their marriage. This situation has brought in its train so many evils that it has even been claimed that the bulk of the labour problem in Japan is to be found here.

Available statistics relating to the age of the workers give only a slight indication of the gravity of this problem. The table below, which is the most recent available[3], does not, unfortunately, show the marital state of the workers. Moreover, the age classification is given only up to 16 years, and all workers above that age are put together in one class. However, in spite of these defects, it gives an idea of the extent to which "young persons" are employed in Japanese factories.

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS IN JAPANESE FACTORIES, 1922-1925

Year	Male workers				Female workers				Total
	Below 14	14-15	15-16	Above 16	Below 14	14-15	15-16	Above 16	
1922	4,643	10,965	24,098	576,194	49,323	77,544	104,974	628,743	1,476,484
1923	3,426	8,840	20,291	558,054	40,880	73,648	101,987	607,754	1,414,880
1924	3,096	9,609	19,878	602,862	40,365	75,521	104,737	635,235	1,491,303
1925	2,657	8,092	18,472	606,929	42,702	77,994	112,816	660,582	1,530,244

[1] *Ibid.*, March 1928, p. 20.
[2] *Tokyo Asahi*, 5 June 1928.
[3] *Rodo Tokei Yoran*, 1928 edition, pp. 68-69.

A few interesting points may be observed in the above table. In the case of male workers, the number of boys under 16 years of age employed in factories has diminished considerably in the four-year period, and the men above 16 years have increased. In the case of female workers, the girls under 14 have decreased, and those above 14 have increased. If we work out the proportion of these workers in the different age groups, we find that in 1925 as many as 95.41 per cent. of the male workers were above the age of 16, while women workers above 16 years of age were 73.88 per cent. of the total, leaving 26.12 per cent. for girls below the age of 16. In other words, among women factory workers in Japan every fourth person is a young girl below 16 years of age.

The distribution of girl workers among different Japanese industries is shown in the following table.[1] For the sake of comparison the numbers of boys under 16 as well as of adult male and female workers are also given.

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE AND INDUSTRIES OF WORKERS IN JAPANESE FACTORIES IN 1925

Industrial group	Below 16		Above 16		Total
	Boys	Girls	Men	Women	
Textiles	13,095	199,784	167,937	591,815	972,631
Machines and tools	8,275	1,721	260,520	16,319	286,835
Chemicals	6,656	6,144	114,287	42,320	169,407
Food and drink	2,452	7,650	121,006	39,540	170,648
Gas, electricity, metal refining	196	8	34,988	1,654	36,846
Miscellaneous	9,179	7,972	113,963	40,900	172,014
Total	39,853	223,279	812,701	732,548	1,808,381

The table shows the striking preponderance of women and especially of young women in the textile industry, which, as will be seen from the figures, is by far the most important branch of industry in Japan. More than half (972,631) of the entire factory population (1,808,381) are employed in the textile industry. Of the textile workers, more than 80 per cent. are women and

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 40-43. The figures are for 1925, but they differ slightly from those given in the former table, having been derived from another source. The latter come from the Department of Industry and Commerce, the former from the Bureau of Social Affairs.

girls ; and of the young persons under 16 years of age, girls are more than fifteen times as numerous as boys, while among the adults there are between three and four times as many women as men.

Detailed statistics of the age distribution of women textile workers for the whole of Japan are difficult to obtain. We have, however, the figures for the prefecture of Nagano, which is the most important textile district in Japan. The figures are unfortunately rather out of date, and refer to the period before the new Act came into force ; nevertheless they throw some light on the situation in the prefecture where the textile industry is most highly developed.[1]

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF WOMEN WORKERS IN THE FILATURES OF NAGANO, 31 MAY 1923

Age group	Number	Age group	Number	Age group	Number
Below 14	10,926	30–31	472	47–48	41
14–15	8,006	31–32	446	48–49	23
15–16	8,746	32–33	348	49–50	33
16–17	8,770	33–34	331	50–51	20
17–18	7,853	34–35	368	51–52	22
18–19	7,584	35–36	233	52–53	10
19–20	6,393	36–37	215	53–54	11
20–21	4,488	37–38	175	54–55	4
21–22	4,812	38–39	156	55–56	4
22–23	4,184	39–40	171	56–57	3
23–24	3,165	40–41	123	57–58	1
24–25	2,369	41–42	112	58–59	2
25–26	1,680	42–43	103	59–60	5
26–27	1,139	43–44	73	60–61	0
27–28	936	44–45	90	61–62	0
28–29	723	45–46	47	62–63	2
29–30	670	46–47	52	Total	86,140

No information is at present available to determine whether the age distribution shown above reflects the general situation throughout the country. But it is clear that, so far as this table shows, the burden of the industry is chiefly borne by quite young women.

Women Workers in Mines

The mining industry in Japan has made considerable progress in recent years. A great development took place during and after

[1] Cf. LOCAL EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE BOARD OF TOKYO : *Kannai Seishi Joko Chosa* (Enquiry into the working conditions of women workers in filatures in the district), March 1925, pp. 23-25.

the war, and the number of workers in mines has been doubled or trebled in the last three decades, as the following figures show :

Year	Men	Women	Total
1899	—	—	119,667
1904	—	—	164,858
1909	—	—	233,827
1914	227,122	67,291	294,413
1919	353,309	111,849	465,158
1924	230,082	75,170	305,252
1925	238,105	72,321	310,426
1926	226,313	70,853	297,166
1927	228,678	64,237	292,915

The number of workers, which rose enormously as the result of the war, has gradually fallen, and at present it has returned to almost the normal pre-war figure. The proportion of women to men (about one-third) has remained almost unchanged.

The distribution of mine workers by age and sex as at 30 June 1925 was as follows :

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE AND SEX OF MINE WORKERS IN JAPAN, 30 JUNE 1925[1]

Category of workers	Male workers					Female workers					Total (both-sexes)
	Under 14	14-15	15-20	Over 20	Total	Under 14	14-15	15-20	Over 20	Tota	
Underground workers :											
Metal mines	57	108	2,007	17,365	19,537	3	9	123	769	904	20,441
Coal ,,	118	640	16,474	122,395	139,627	86	416	8,112	37,458	46,072	185,699
Others	0	5	187	1,868	2,060	0	0	13	82	95	2,155
Total	175	753	18,668	141,628	161,224	89	425	8,248	38,309	47,071	208,295
Surface workers :											
Metal mines	41	124	2,401	16,863	19,429	11	61	858	4,061	4,991	24,420
Coal ,,	88	527	7,476	39,778	47,869	64	389	5,379	13,498	19,330	67,199
Oil ,,	0	10	689	6,000	6,699	0	0	59	562	621	7,320
Others	0	5	181	2,698	2,884	0	3	33	272	308	3,192
Total	129	666	10,747	65,339	76,881	75	453	6,329	18,393	25,250	102,131
Grand total	304	1,419	29,415	206,967	238,105	164	878	14,577	56,702	72,321	310,426

[1] *Rodo Tokei Yoran*, 1928 edition, pp. 82-83.

Even in 1925 the number of children under 14 years of age employed in all Japanese mines had thus been reduced to 468. This

number included only 89 girls employed underground and 75 on surface work. But since the Act on the minimum age for industrial employment came into force in 1926, child labour has been suppressed, and if any children are still so employed, their number is negligible. However, the presence of many women workers in mining work, which involves hardship and many physical dangers, is in itself a problem, whose seriousness is intensified by the fact that there are many women, some of them quite young, employed in underground work. In 1925, for example, out of 208,295 miners working underground, 47,071 were women, 8,672 of whom were under 20 years of age; out of 102,131 miners doing surface work, 25,250 were women, 6,857 of whom were under 20 years of age. It should be remembered that these girls are future mothers, who need protection physically as well as morally. The social effects of the presence of many young women in mines, working even underground, must be seriously considered.

Nevertheless, the employment of women in underground work is an old custom in the country, especially in the southern coal mines, where hewers are accompanied by their wives, sons, and daughters. There the women and children work side by side with the men and assist them as "putters", that is, collecting and loading coal on the mine cars. Obviously the employment of female or juvenile labour in this work is not desirable, but age-long custom cannot be done away with easily. It is sometimes contended that the men prefer, on moral grounds, to have their women folk underground with them.

The steps that are being taken to improve the situation will be described later.

(To be continued.)

Seasonal Unemployment in the Building Industry in Certain European Countries : II

by

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In a previous article[1], *Professor Hersch discussed the problems of methodology raised by the study of the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment. He next proceeds to a detailed analysis of the facts country by country. The following pages deal with Great Britain; the other countries to be considered (Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, and Italy) will be studied subsequently in Part III.*

ANALYSIS OF THE FACTS

17. For our examination of the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry in each country considered, we shall make two sets of comparisons : the first of the building industry with all industries and occupations in the country concerned, and the second of the various building occupations with each other and with the whole industry. Unless otherwise mentioned, the monthly figures of unemployment given in the tables all refer to the end of the month.

Great Britain[2]

Building compared with All Industries Together

18. The fluctuations of unemployment in Great Britain in the building industry cannot be compared with those in all industries for years previous to 1922, for before the 1920 Unemployment

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIX, No. 1, Jan. 1929. pp. 39-59.

Errata. Page 58, line 3 of footnote, for "a maximum value $\frac{n}{2}$", read : "a maximum value $\sqrt{\frac{n}{2}}$". The reference to the footnote on page 54 should be inserted at the end of the first sentence of section 14 (after the word "figure").

[2] The figures here relate to all unemployed workers (including those partially unemployed) among the workers insured against unemployment.

Insurance Act came into force, the number of insured persons (other than those in the building industry) was much smaller than the number covered by the unemployment statistics after that date, and in addition the composition of the group was very different. The comparable statistics for building and all industries therefore cover only the six-year period 1922-1927. For this short period the method of extended medians, generally used here for determining the " normal " unemployment of each month (see section 11), reduces to that of the simple arithmetic means of all the years considered, however exceptional some of them may have been. The shortness of the period means that very great reservations must be attached to the value of each average figure considered as " normal ". It seems, however, that the data for these six years bring out the general character of the phenomenon fairly clearly.

Furthermore, since the building statistics previous to 1922, which will be examined later, cover not only building properly so called, but also the " construction of works " (roads, canals, tunnels, etc.), under a single heading, it seemed best to include the " construction of works " in the figures for 1922-1927, although since 1922 it has appeared under a separate heading.

It may be mentioned here that the number of workers insured against unemployment in Great Britain and Northern Ireland in July 1927 was 12,131,000 for all industries, 847,860 for building, and 169,300 for the construction of works.

19. The average monthly fluctuations of unemployment during the period 1922-1927 for the groups of workers considered are shown in table I and Figures 3 and 4.[1]

[1] It should be pointed out that the percentages given in the British unemployment insurance statistics suffer from a slight systematic error, due to the fact that the number of insured persons is recorded once a year only — in July — and that it is as a proportion of that figure that the percentages for the following twelve months are calculated. If during these twelve months there is a gradual rise in the number of insured persons, the percentages for each month except July will be systematically too low, the error increasing progressively month by month, so that the percentage unemployed will seem to be slightly higher in July than in the other months of the year. From July 1923, when the numbers of persons insured in building and the construction of works respectively were 716,000 and 128,000, to 1927 the figures rose in fact to 848,000 and 169,000.

TABLE I. GREAT BRITAIN. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN ALL INDUSTRIES, THE BUILDING INDUSTRY, AND THE CONSTRUCTION OF WORKS, 1922-1927 [1]

Month, etc.	Number of unemployed per 100 insured workers			Monthly index of unemployment		
	All industries together	Building	Construction of works	All industries together	Building	Construction of works
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Jan.	12.6	16.8	22.9	1.09	1.39	1.18
Feb.	11.9	14.8	21.1	1.03	1.22	1.09
March	11.1	11.9	19.1	0.97	0.98	0.99
April	10.8	10.5	18.4	0.94	0.87	0.95
May	11.3	9.9	18.2	0.99	0.82	0.94
June	11.5	10.0	17.7	1.00	0.83	0.91
July	11.5	10.5	18.2	1.00	0.87	0.94
Aug.	11.7	10.5	18.6	1.02	0.87	0.96
Sept.	11.6	11.0	19.1	1.01	0.91	0.99
Oct.	11.6	11.8	19.1	1.00	0.98	0.99
Nov.	11.6	13.3	20.2	1.00	1.10	1.04
Dec.	11.0	14.4	20.7	0.96	1.20	1.07
Average of 12 months	11.5	12.1	19.4	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	Jan. 12.6	Jan. 16.8	Jan. 22.9	Jan. 1.09	Jan. 1.39	Jan. 1.18
Minimum	April 10.8	May-June 9.9 10.0	June 17.7	April 0.94	May-June 0.82 0.83	June 0.91
α or *max—min*	1.8	6.9	5.2	0.15	0.57	0.27
$\frac{\alpha}{min}$ [2]	0.17	0.70	0.29	0.17	0.70	0.29
σ	0.45	2.14	1.45	0.04	0.18	0.07
β [2]	0.29	0.12	0.16	0.29	0.12	0.16
γ [2]	0.50	0.74	0.68	0.50	0.74	0.68

[1] It may be recalled that the following sense has been given to the terms and other conventional expressions used in these tables: "Monthly index of unemployment" is the ratio of the unemployment figure for each month to the arithmetic mean for the twelve months of the year. As a rule, the average for the twelve months is put equal to 100, i.e. the ratio is multiplied by 100; we have preferred to leave it as it stands, giving the average as 1.00. If the reader wishes to obtain the monthly indexes in their ordinary form, he has only to remove the decimal point. α or *max—min* denotes the range of the fluctuations of unemployment, i.e. the difference between the unemployment of the month when it is highest (*max*) and that of the month when it is lowest (*min*). σ denotes the standard deviation of the monthly fluctuations, i.e. the square root of the average of the squares of the deviations between the monthly figures and their arithmetic mean. β denotes the index of concentration and γ the index of prolongation of the fluctuations of unemployment. For fuller explanations the reader may refer to Part I of this study.

[2] The values of these quantities must obviously be the same for both parts of the table (number of unemployed and monthly index of unemployment). The only reason for a slight divergence between them would be a proportionately greater change of α and σ in the second part of the table, due to the rounding off of the second decimal. In such cases, the figures in the first part are more accurate and are therefore given also in the second. This remark applies also to all the following tables.

The table shows that the *average* frequency of unemployment in Great Britain is slightly higher in the building industry proper than in all industries together, and that during the period covered the figure for the construction of works was 60 per cent. higher than that for building, and two-thirds greater than that for all industries (12.1 and 19.4 unemployed per 100 insured persons for the two building groups respectively, as compared with 11.5 for all industries together).

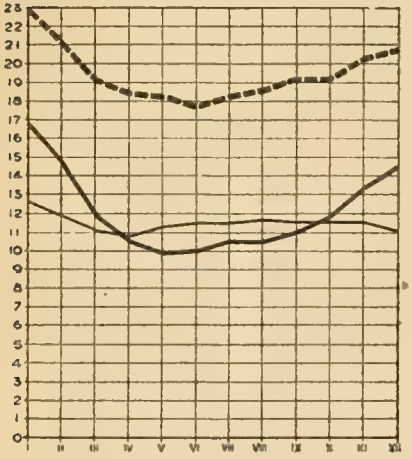

FIGURE 3. UNEMPLOYED PER 100 INSURED WORKERS

GREAT BRITAIN. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, 1922-1927.

All industries together.
Building.
Construction of works.

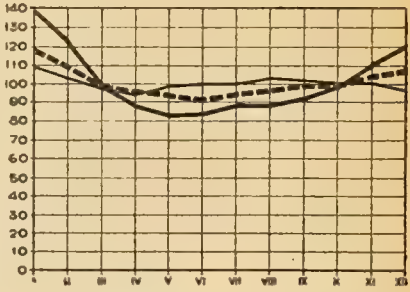

FIGURE 4. MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

As regards the monthly fluctuations of unemployment, the following conclusions may be drawn :

(*a*) The maximum unemployment in the building industry and the construction of works, and in all industries, occurs at the end of January.

(*b*) The minimum unemployment is reached for the building industry and the construction of works at the end of May or June, and perhaps June rather than May (this applies to " construction of works " ; for the building industry proper, the difference between the end of May and the end of June is quite insignificant, the two figures being 9.9 and 10.0). For all industries together the minimum is reached at the end of April. However, here the result clearly betrays the defects of the method of arithmetic means. As a matter of fact, in the six years examined, there was only one in which the unemployment in April was lower than that in May, and that was in 1926. In May of that year there was a general

strike and the mining dispute broke out, the result being a sudden rise in unemployment, from 9.1 per cent. in April to 14.3 per cent. in May (although the unemployment figures do not include the miners affected by the dispute). In all the other years, the minimum unemployment was reached in May (in 1925 both months had the same rate : 11.2). It therefore seems more accurate to say that for all British industries together May is the month of minimum unemployment. It appears that in the building industry and the construction of works the minimum is reached about a month later than in the industry of the country as a whole.

(*c*) As table I and Figures 3 and 4 show, the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in building and the construction of works form a curve with a single maximum (January) and a single minimum (May-June), whereas the curve for all industries shows, in addition to the absolute maximum of unemployment in January, a second fairly high maximum in August and a second minimum in December almost equal to that of April. Thus unemployment in the building industry follows a fairly simple curve, falling from January to June and rising from July to January. For all industries the unemployment movement is more complex. It falls from January to April-May, rises until the end of August, falls again until the end of December, and then rises suddenly in January. The monthly fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry are consequently not parallel to those in British industry as a whole. During the greater part of the year the two movements are even in opposite directions, the most striking contrast in this respect being December, when unemployment is almost at its highest in the building industry, but, on the contrary, almost at its lowest in all industries together. This radical divergence between the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry and in industry as a whole is one of the characteristic features of industrial conditions in the United Kingdom, and is perhaps worthy of special study. The divergence would of course be even greater if, instead of comparing the building industry with all industries (including building), it were compared with all industries other than building.

(*d*) Another peculiarity of industrial conditions in this country, to which attention has already been drawn in the *International Labour Review*[1], is the slightness of the seasonal fluctuations in

[1] Vol. XVII, No. 3, March 1928, pp. 349-376 : " Seasonal Fluctuations in Unemployment ".

unemployment. The difference in this respect between industry as a whole and the building industry is consequently very striking. The range α of the fluctuations, i.e. the difference between the maximum and the minimum monthly unemployment, is for the building industry proper about four times as great as for industry as a whole, and this is so whether we take the absolute fluctuations in the rate of unemployment (6.9 compared with 1.8), or their ratio to the average rate of unemployment for the year (57 per cent. and 15 per cent. of the average rate). This difference in the range of the fluctuations is to be ascribed to the two-fold fact that unemployment in the building industry rises more rapidly during the months when unemployment in general is rising, and also falls more rapidly during the months when unemployment in general is falling. Thus for the period considered here, unemployment rises to a maximum (in January) which in the building industry is 39 per cent. above the average and in industry as a whole only 9 per cent.; the minimum is 18 per cent. below the average in the building industry (May) and only 6 per cent. below in industry as a whole (April). The standard deviation σ for the building industry is nearly five times that for all industries (2.14 and 0.45 respectively).

It will also be seen that for all industries during four months of the year (June, July, October, November) the unemployment rate differs from the average by less than 1 per cent., that during the seven months May-November it differs by less than 3 per cent. (varying between 99 and 102 per cent. of the average), and that it is only during the three months December, January, and April that it differs by 4 per cent. or more (see column (5) of table I and Figure 4). For industry as a whole, therefore, the seasonal fluctuations are mainly concentrated in a short period of the year. There is nothing similar in the building industry. There, during three months (March, September, October) the rate of unemployment differs from the average by less than 10 per cent. (column (6)); during the remaining nine months it differs by 10 per cent. or more. In all industries together the standard deviation σ of the number unemployed per 100 insured workers is less than 0.5; but the deviation from the average is greater than σ in only two months (January, when the percentage unemployed is over 12, and April, when it is under 11). In the building industry the standard deviation is over 2.1, yet there are four months in which the deviation from the average is greater than it. The result is that the concentration ratio $\frac{\alpha}{\sigma}$ of the seasonal fluctuations,

which is 0.29 for all industries together, is only 0.12 for building; the index of prolongation γ is 0.50 for all industries together and 0.74 for building. The effect of seasonal influences is thus much more prolonged in the building industry than in industry as a whole.

The fact that seasonal fluctuations are at once more intense and of longer duration in the building industry than in industry as a whole is of course partly due to the considerations discussed in Part I of this study (section 5), in which it was shown that in a general way the effect of seasonal influences must appear weaker for a number of branches of industry taken together than for any one of them. The difference found here between the building industry and industry as a whole is so marked, however, that there can be hardly any doubt that the much weaker effect of seasonal influences in industry as a whole is not merely apparent, but is probably very largely quite genuine.

(*e*) From the point of view of seasonal fluctuations, the "construction of works" comes between the building industry proper and all industries together. This appears very clearly in Figure 4 and from table I. Here the range ^{n} of the fluctuations (*max* — *min*) is absolutely and relatively smaller than for building, but larger than for all industries together. This is also true of the standard deviation σ. The index of concentration is higher than for building, but lower than for all industries together; the index of prolongation is lower than for building, but higher than for all industries together. In brief, the effect of seasonal influences is less intense and less prolonged than for the building industry proper, but more intense and more prolonged than for all industries together.

For the next part of this study — the examination of the different building occupations and of unemployment in different parts of the country — the data for the building industry proper are combined under one head with those for the construction of works; we must therefore conclude that the effect of seasonal influences on the fluctuations of unemployment in the subdivisions of the building industry proper is in reality even stronger than will appear below.

The Different Occupations in the Building Industry

20. Subject to certain reservations, which it would take too long to set out here, the statistics for Great Britain show the course of unemployment month by month during the fifteen consecutive years 1913-1927 in building and the construction of works, and

in seven different occupations belonging to this branch of industry. These occupations, in the order of the number of workers insured against unemployment in each, are the following : labourers, carpenters, painters, bricklayers, plumbers, masons, and plasterers. In July 1927, out of a total of 1,017,160 insured workers in building and the construction of works, the numbers in these groups were as follows :

Occupation	Number	Per cent.
Labourers	265,020	26
Carpenters	134,450	13
Painters	114,610	11
Bricklayers	75,760	7
Plumbers	34,220	3
Masons	24,560	2
Plasterers	22,130	2

In the building industry proper, labourers formed 31 per cent. of the total number of insured workers, carpenters 16 per cent., painters 13 per cent., bricklayers 9 per cent., plumbers 4 per cent., masons 3 per cent., plasterers 2 per cent.[1]

The groups therefore differ widely in numerical importance, a fact which must not be forgotten. The typical fluctuations of unemployment for each month of the year, calculated from the data for the fifteen-year period 1913-1927 by the method of extended medians previously described (section 11), for these different occupations are shown in table II (pages 214-215).[2]

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[1] For the important group of navvies, who form the bulk of the workers in the construction of works and are about equal in number to painters, the statistics show the monthly fluctuations of unemployment during the ten-year period 1913-1922.

[2] In the information given in the *Ministry of Labour Gazette* there are three gaps in the figures for the percentage unemployed among insured workers in the building industry, namely, for the periods June-October 1919, October-December 1920, and June-September 1923, in the last case for the separate occupations only and not for the whole industry. To fill the first gap, June-October 1919, an approximate percentage of unemployed has been calculated from the absolute numbers given in the *Gazette* and the approximate number of insured persons based on the figures before June and after October 1919. The percentages so calculated can hardly differ much from the actual figures, and in any case they can scarcely affect the medians or averages for the whole period 1913-1927. As to the second gap (October-December 1920), it was found that for the building industry as a whole and for certain occupations considered (plasterers, carpenters, bricklayers, and plumbers) every month of 1920 and the earlier months of 1921 had an unemployment rate which was one of the five lowest which were eliminated in calculating the extended medians. Since in these conditions there was no reason to suppose that the three months October-December 1920 were an exception to this particularly favourable state of affairs, they have been regarded for the occupations in question as months of slight unemployment, and simply eliminated like the other months of the year. A similar method was possible in certain cases for the months June-September 1923. The unemployment rates for the whole building industry in the separate months of 1922 and 1923 (until December),

21. In reviewing the principal conclusions to be drawn from table II, we may begin with the question of the average unemployment for the twelve months of the year.

(*a*) For building and the construction of works together it will be seen that the twelve-monthly average (7.5 per cent.) for the period 1913-1927 is much lower than that found above (table I) for the period 1922-1927, both in the building industry proper (12.1 per cent.) and in the construction of works alone (19.4 per cent.). Is is true that unemployment in the building industry has increased so heavily during the last few years ? To some extent the difference between the averages in table I and table II is due to the methods of calculation. Those in table I cover all the years in the period, even those of exceptional unemployment, whereas those in table II are only the averages of the extended medians, obtained, as already explained, after eliminating the periods of exceptional unemployment ; and, as shown in section 9, the former must be perceptibly higher than the latter for unemployment in the building industry. But, in the main, the difference is due to an actual increase in unemployment in building and the construction of works in Great Britain, as is incontestably confirmed by the annual figures, which there is no room to quote here.

(*b*) The average unemployment in building and the construction of works is in no way typical for the separate occupations covered. Leaving out of account labourers, whose average unemployment for the year (8.1 per cent.) is not far from that in the building industry as a whole, although a little larger, the unemployment in the separate occupations differs substantially from the average. Among painters the average unemployment is much higher than for the whole industry. In all the other occupations it is much lower, and often less than half the general average for the building industry. Thus even within the industry two groups of occupations may be distinguished which differ widely in their normal annual rate of unemployment. On the one hand, there are painters and labourers with a very high annual average, and on the other, the other occupations with a comparatively slight unemployment. (In table II the occupations are given in diminishing order of

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including the period June-September 1923, were particularly high, and were therefore eliminated in determining the extended medians. For the occupations (painters, labourers, and plumbers) in which the same phenomenon was found for the known months of 1922 and 1923, the months June-September 1923 have accordingly also been eliminated. In the other cases the extended medians have been calculated from 14 terms only, instead of 15.

TABLE II. GREAT BRITAIN. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYM
PRINCIPAL OCCUPATI

Month, etc.	Number of unemployed per 100 insured workers							
	Building and construction of works	Painters	Labourers	Masons	Plasterers	Carpenters	Bricklayers	Plumbers
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Jan.	9.5	20.5	9.4	6.0	5.0	3.7	4.3	4.4
Feb.	9.3	13.9	9.9	5.3	4.3	3.7	3.2	5.4
March	8.3	7.0	9.1	4.7	3.3	3.6	2.3	5.5
April	7.1	3.5	8.0	3.6	3.3	2.9	2.0	5.3
May	6.5	2.8	7.5	3.3	2.8	2.8	2.0	5.2
June	5.9	4.2	6.7	2.6	2.3	2.3	1.8	4.8
July	6.1	5.9	6.7	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.3	5.0
Aug.	6.3	6.3	6.9	3.1	2.5	2.6	2.3	4.8
Sept.	6.8	9.4	6.9	2.7	2.3	2.1	2.1	4.3
Oct.	7.1	13.6	7.8	2.9	2.4	2.2	1.8	4.1
Nov.	8.1	17.9	8.6	3.8	3.2	2.5	2.2	3.7
Dec.	8.9	20.0	9.4	5.6	4.7	2.8	4.0	3.9
Average of 12 months	7.5	10.4	8.1	3.8	3.2	2.8	2.5	4.7
Maximum	Jan. 9.5	Jan. 20.5	Feb.-Jan. 9.9 9.4	Jan. 6.0	Jan. 5.0	Jan.-Feb. 3.7	Jan. 4.3	March 5.5
Minimum	June 5.9	May 2.8	June-July 6.7	June-July 2.6	June-July 2.3	Sept. 2.1	June-Oct. 1.8	Nov. 3.7
α or *max—min*	3.6	17.7	3.2	3.4	2.7	1.6	2.5	1.8
$\frac{\alpha}{min}$	0.61	6.32	0.48	1.31	1.17	0.76	1.39	0.49
σ	1.22	6.23	1.12	1.18	0.91	0.53	0.81	0.53
β or index of concentration	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.11	0.17	0.16	0.19	0.08
γ or index of prolongation	0.85	0.83	0.83	0.77	0.66	0.68	0.64	0.83

BUILDING AND THE CONSTRUCTION OF WORKS AS A WHOLE AND IN THE PARATELY, 1913-1927

Monthly index of unemployment								Month, etc.
Building and construction of works	Painters	Labourers	Masons	Plasterers	Carpenters	Bricklayers	Plumbers	
(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
1.27	1.97	1.16	1.56	1.56	1.32	1.72	0.94	Jan.
1.24	1.34	1.22	1.38	1.34	1.32	1.28	1.15	Feb.
1.11	0.67	1.12	1.22	1.03	1.29	0.92	1.17	March
0.95	0.34	0.99	0.94	1.03	1.04	0.80	1.13	April
0.87	0.27	0.93	0.86	0.88	1.00	0.80	1.11	May
0.79	0.40	0.83	0.67	0.72	0.82	0.72	1.02	June
0.81	0.57	0.83	0.67	0.84	0.93	0.92	1.06	July
0.84	0.61	0.85	0.81	0.78	0.93	0.92	1.02	Aug.
0.91	0.90	0.85	0.70	0.72	0.75	0.84	0.92	Sept.
0.95	1.31	0.96	0.75	0.75	0.79	0.72	0.87	Oct.
1.08	1.72	1.06	0.99	1.00	0.89	0.88	0.79	Nov.
1.19	1.92	1.16	1.46	1.47	1.00	1.60	0.83	Dec.
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	Average of 12 months
Jan. 1.27	Jan. 1.97	Feb.-Jan. 1.22 1.16	Jan. 1.56	Jan. 1.56	Jan.-Feb. 1.32	Jan. 1.72	March 1.17	Maximum
June 0.79	May 0.27	June–July 0.83	June–July 0.67	June–July 0.72	Sept. 0.75	June 0.72	Nov. 0.79	Minimum
0.48	1.70	0.39	0.89	0.84	0.57	1.00	0.38	α or *max-min*
0.61	6.32	0.48	1.31	1.17	0.76	1.39	0.49	$\frac{\alpha}{min}$
0.16	0.60	0.14	0.31	0.28	0.19	0.32	0.12	σ
0.07	0.08	0.08	0.11	0.17	0.16	0.19	0.08	β or index of concentration
0.85	0.83	0.83	0.77	0.66	0.68	0.64	0.83	γ or index of prolongation

their average annual unemployment, except plumbers, who are put separately in the last column.)

22. As regards the monthly fluctuations of unemployment, the following main conclusions may be drawn from table II and Figures 5 and 6.

GREAT BRITAIN. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY, 1922-1927

FIGURE 5. UNEMPLOYED PER 100 INSURED WORKERS

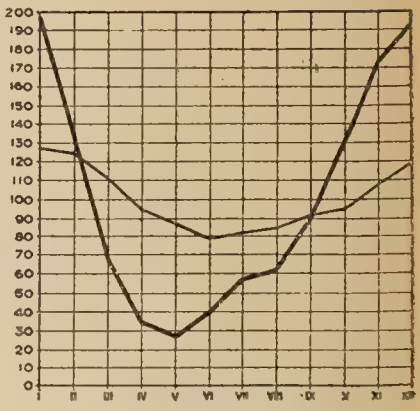

FIGURE 6. MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

(*a*) The monthly fluctuations of unemployment in building and the construction of works together form an undulatory curve without sudden changes and with only one maximum (in January) and one minimum (in June) during the year.[1] During the five

[1] The undulatory curve of the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry as a whole which has only one maximum for the year, may be fitted to a sine curve (see footnote to section 14). If Φ denotes consecutive multiples of 30°, from 30°, corresponding to the end of November, to 360°, corresponding to the end of October, and if y denotes the monthly rate of unemployment, we get the formula

$$y = 7.5 + 1.69 \sin \Phi$$

For the period under consideration the curve given by this equation is a very satisfactory representation of the twelve monthly fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry of Great Britain. This is shown by the following comparison of the actual figures with those given by the equation :

Month	Actual figures	Calculated figures	Month	Actual figures	Calculated figures
Nov.	8.1	8.3	May	6.5	6.7
Dec.	8.9	9.0	June	5.9	6.0
Jan.	9.5	9.2	July	6.1	5.8
Feb.	9.3	9.0	Aug.	6.3	6.0
March	8.3	8.3	Sept.	6.8	6.7
April	7.1	7.5	Oct.	7.1	7.5

The sum of the differences between the two series is only per cent of the sum

months November-March, the index of unemployment is above the annual average ; during the rest of the year it is below.

(*b*) Neither the standard deviation of the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry ($\sigma = 1.22$, or 0.16 times the average rate of unemployment for the twelve months) nor the range of these fluctuations ($max - min = \alpha = 3.6$, or 0.48 times the average rate of unemployment) are typical of the separate occupations in the industry (except labourers), as will be seen from table II. This is not so true of the indexes of concentration and prolongation, which seem more characteristic.

(*c*) In comparing tables I and II it is difficult to see whether the fluctuations of unemployment due to seasonal influences have become more or less marked during the last few years, since it is not easy to compare the two tables, and the variations in the indexes showing the effects of seasonal influences differ from one table to the other. Table I (1922-1927), however, based on a comparison of the arithmetic means, must to some extent modify the true effects of seasonal fluctuations (see section 9). It may therefore be reasonably assumed that seasonal fluctuations have in fact become somewhat more marked during the last few years.

23. The characteristics of seasonal fluctuations in building and the construction of works taken together are, however, far from the same in the separate occupations concerned. It may be seen (cf. Figures 5-18) that :

(*a*) Only painters and labourers have an unemployment curve with only one maximum and one minimum in the year. In the other occupations, on the contrary, there are a secondary maximum and minimum in addition to the absolute maximum and minimum. In other words, apart from painters and labourers, the other occupations suffer not only from the ordinary slack season, but also from a second period of increased unemployment. This second peak of the curve occurs in the height of summer, in July or August. Its cause is to be sought mainly in the domain of consumption, since orders for certain work, particularly repairs, are given more in spring and at the end of summer or the beginning of autumn (see sections 1 and 2). But it should be observed that except for plumbers, who are to some extent in a special position, this second

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of the terms of each series. (Here again, however, the minimum is shifted from the end of June to the end of July.) Unfortunately, for unemployment, such close agreement between the actual figures and the sine curve is, as already indicated (see footnote to section 14), extremely rare.

summer maximum in no occupation reaches the level of the average unemployment for the year. The rise is therefore purely relative.

(*b*) Leaving the plumbers out of account, the absolute maximum of unemployment in all the occupations considered, as in the industry as a whole, occurs in January.[1] There is much less uniformity as to the date of the absolute minimum of unemployment. Most often it occurs in June (as for the building industry as a whole), but apart from the plumbers, the absolute minimum in the separate occupations occurs in other months, for instance May (painters) and September (carpenters). What may be called the critical periods for fluctuations in unemployment, and indeed the other characteristics of these fluctuations, thus vary from one occupation to another. We shall therefore consider each of them separately.

24. It is among painters (cf. table II and Figures 5 and 6) that the effect of seasonal influences on employment and unemployment is much the strongest. In no other occupation does unemployment reach so high a maximum in January (20.5 unemployed per 100 insured workers, or nearly double the annual average unemployment); in no other occupation is the relative fall in unemployment at the minimum so great (in May 0.27 times the annual average). The range of the fluctuations for painters is five times as great as for the building industry as a whole (17.7 as compared with 3.6) or for masons (3.4), for whom the range is largest among the other occupations. Even in proportion to the annual average unemployment, which is much the highest for painters, the range of the monthly fluctuations is three or four times as great among them as in the building industry as a whole (1.70 compared with 0.48), and nearly twice as great as in the occupations (bricklayers, masons, plasterers) which come next to the painters in range (1.00, 0.89, and 0.84). Compared with unemployment in the minimum month, i.e. with the permanent residue of unemployment, the range $(\frac{\alpha}{min})$ for painters is ten times that for all building

[1] According to table II labourers appear to form an exception to this rule, as unemployment among them is higher in February than in January, but this is only an illusion. In actual fact, if the figures are followed from year to year, it will be seen that in the fifteen years considered (1913-1928), unemployment in February was higher than in January only three times (in 1913, 1919, and 1921); once (in 1916) unemployment was the same in both months, and in the remaining eleven years the maximum was in January. This example shows that if the series is not very long, even the method of extended medians does not altogether eliminate fluctuations not due to seasonal causes, although it is much better for the purpose than the simple arithmetic mean.

(6.32 compared with 0.61), and five times that for the next highest occupation (1.31 for masons). This also holds for the standard deviation σ of the monthly fluctuations, which for painters is five or six times as high as for the whole building industry (6.23 compared with 1.22), or for the next highest occupation (1.18 for labourers). Even the ratio of the standard deviation to the annual average is nearly four times as high for painters as for all building (0.60 compared with 0.16), and twice as high as for bricklayers (0.32) and masons (0.31), which on this basis of comparison come next after painters. The intensity of seasonal fluctuations is therefore much greater among painters than in the rest of the building industry.

The duration of the seasonal fluctuations is also the greatest among painters (and labourers), the index of concentration being lowest among them (0.08) and the index of prolongation highest (0.83). Furthermore, seasonal fluctuations are in general felt earlier among them than in the other occupations. It is among them that unemployment first rises above the annual average (in October); among them that it first falls below the annual average (in March)[1]; among them that it first reaches the minimum (in May); and also among them that it first begins to rise again (in June).

In every respect, therefore, painters form the occupation in the building industry that is most sensitive to seasonal fluctuations. Comparing this conclusion with the fact that the painters also have much the highest annual average unemployment, we are impelled to ask whether there is not a causal connection between the two facts. In particular, it may be asked whether the high average unemployment is not itself due very largely to these marked seasonal fluctuations. The fact that the number of workers in this occupation is determined by the heavy demand in the month of maximum activity (May) condemns it to correspondingly severe unemployment in the rest of the year.[2]

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[1] It is therefore during the seven months March-September that unemployment is below the annual average, and during the five months October-February that it is above.

[2] In view of the great asymmetry of the true curve of the monthly fluctuations of unemployment among painters (maximum in January and minimum in May) and its uneven movements in several months of the year, the fitting of a sine curve ($y = 10.4 + 6.87 \sin \Phi$) would give a distorted picture of the true effect of seasonal influences in this occupation. (The sum of the differences between the terms of the actual and the calculated series is 33 per cent. of the sum of the terms of each series, in addition to which the minimum is shifted from May to July, etc.)

25. Of all the occupations, that of labourers (cf. Figures 7 and 8) is closest to the building industry as a whole, not only as regards the annual average unemployment (as already pointed out), but also as regards its seasonal fluctuations.

GREAT BRITAIN. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY, 1913-1927

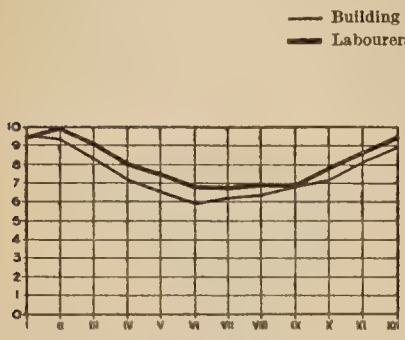

FIGURE 7. UNEMPLOYED PER 100 INSURED WORKERS

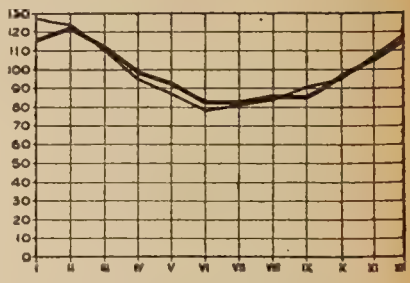

FIGURE 8. MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

This is not perhaps very surprising. On the one hand, labourers are by far the largest occupation in the industry (see section 22), and it is therefore natural that they, more than any other occupation, should determine the nature of the movement in the industry as a whole. On the other hand, the labourers are, as a rule, the mates of the skilled workers in the other occupations, and it is therefore not surprising that their unemployment should follow closely the movement for all the other occupations taken together. The two curves are not only parallel[1], but are in general very close together. As for the building industry as a whole, the months in which unemployment is higher than the annual average are those from November to March; the range of the fluctuations is nearly the same (though slightly less) for labourers (3.2) as for the whole industry (3.6). This also holds for the standard deviation (1.12 and 1.22 respectively) and the indexes of concentration (0.08 and 0.07 respectively) and prolongation (0.83 and 0.85 respectively).[2]

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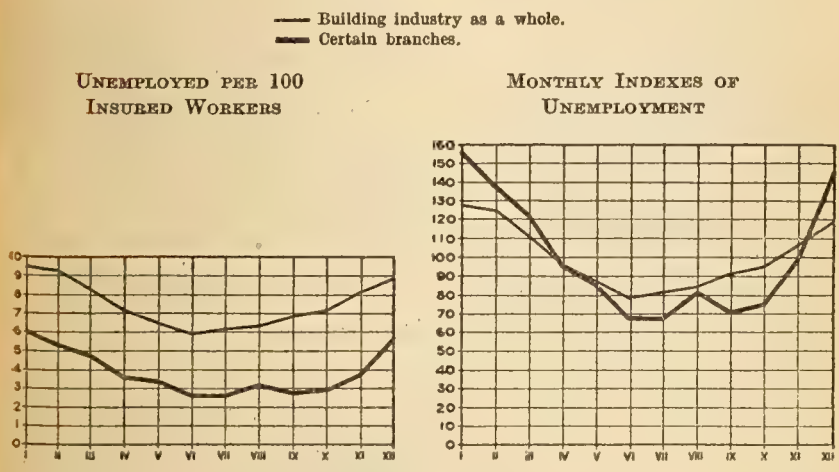
[1] The divergence between the dates of maximum unemployment is, as already shown, quite fictitious.

[2] Like the curve of the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry as a whole, that of the fluctuations among labourers may also be fitted

26. The occupations of masons, plasterers, carpenters and brikclayers (see Figures 9-16) differ from those of painters and labourers as well as from industry as a whole; in the first place because, as already pointed out, the curve of their unemployment has a secondary maximum in summer and a secondary minimum in autumn.

It may be observed, however, that among these four occupations, that of the masons differs least from the occupations examined above and the industry as a whole. The range of the monthly fluctuations for masons is 3.4 (compared with 3.6 for the whole

GREAT BRITAIN. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY, 1913-1927



FIGURES 9 AND 10: MASONS

approximately to a sine curve. The equation is $y = 8.1 + 1.55 \sin$, and the figures in table II and those given by the equation are compared below:

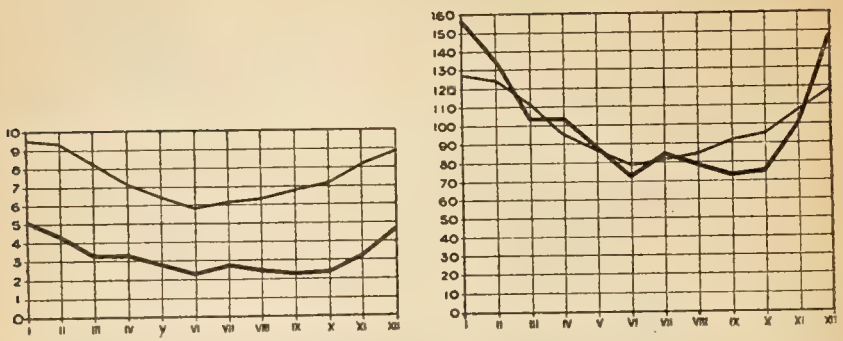
Month	Actual figures	Calculated figures	Month	Actual figures	Calculated figures
Nov.	8.6	8.9	May	7.5	7.3
Dec.	9.4	9.4	June	6.7	6.8
Jan.	9.4	9.6	July	6.7	6.6
Feb.	9.9	9.4	Aug.	6.9	6.8
March	9.1	8.9	Sept.	6.9	7.3
April	8.0	8.1	Oct.	7.1	8.1

The sum of the differences between the two series is only 2.7 per cent. of the sum of the terms of each series.

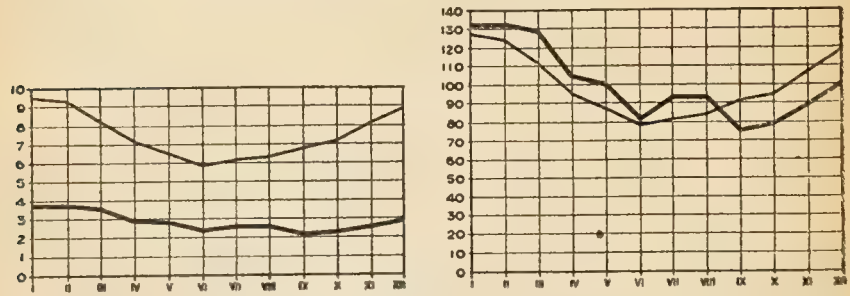
Compared with the equation for the monthly fluctuations in the building industry as a whole ($y = 7.5 + 1.69 \sin\Phi$), this equation indicates an annual average unemployment for labourers slightly above that for the building industry as a whole, and slightly less marked seasonal fluctuations, which agrees with the results of the other comparisons just made.

Unemployed per 100 Insured Workers

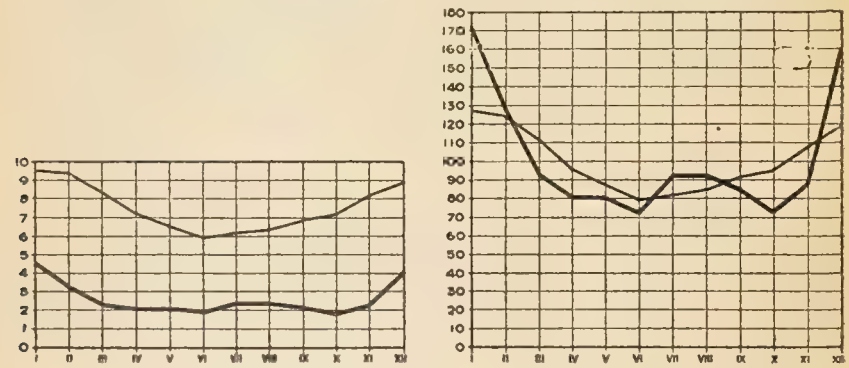
Monthly Indexes of Unemployment



Figures 11 and 12 : Plasterers



Figures 13 and 14 : Carpenters



Figures 15 and 16 : Bricklayers

industry); their standard deviation is 1.18 (1.22 for the whole industry); the absolute minimum occurs in June-July (June for the whole industry); the period during which unemployment is above the average annual rate is four months, December-March (instead of five months, November-March — in the first

of which, however, the deviation from the average is small — for the whole industry); the index of concentration is 0.11 (0.08 for painters and labourers, and 0.07 for the whole industry); the index of prolongation is 0.77 for masons (0.83 for painters and labourers, and 0.85 for the whole industry). The three other occupations, on the contrary, give widely different results from those just noted in all these respects. The range of the monthly fluctuations is much smaller (2.7 for plasterers, 2.5 for bricklayers, 1.6 for carpenters); the standard deviation is also much smaller (0.91, 0.81, and 0.53 respectively); the absolute minimum occurs in autumn (in September for carpenters and plasterers and in October for bricklayers, though for plasterers and bricklayers the June minimum is equal to the autumn minimum); the period during which unemployment is substantially higher than the annual average rate is only three months (December-February for plasterers and bricklayers, and January-March for carpenters); the index of concentration is lower (0.17 for plasterers, 0.16 for carpenters, and 0.19 for bricklayers); and the index of prolongation is lower (0.66, 0.68 and 0.64 respectively). In these occupations, therefore, the effects of the slack season are felt later, particularly among carpenters, and seasonal fluctuations as a whole are less intense and less prolonged.

27. Plumbers form a group apart among the building workers. A comparison of the annual curve of unemployment for plumbers with that for the whole building industry (see Figures 17 and 18) gives the impression that the two movements are in opposite directions.[1]

GREAT BRITAIN. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY, 1913-1927

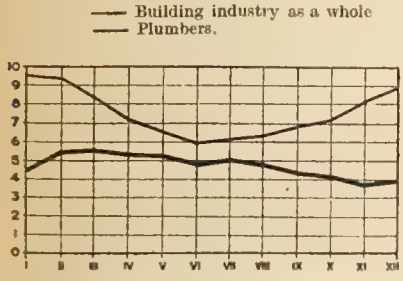


FIGURE 17. UNEMPLOYED PER 100 INSURED PERSONS

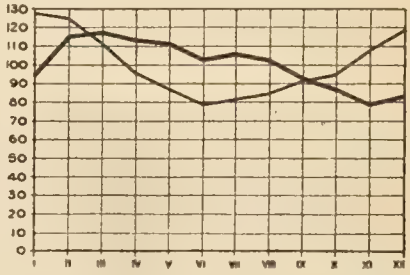


FIGURE 18. MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

[1] The unemployment curves for painters and plumbers in fact move in opposite directions.

The correlation coefficient between the two curves shows that there is no correlation. For plumbers January is a month of slight unemployment, and the maximum is reached in March (when unemployment among painters is already below the annual average); the minimum for plumbers is reached in November (when for painters it is not far from the maximum). From September to January is a period of slight unemployment for plumbers, whose worst months are not until February-May; during the summer months, June-August, their unemployment is about equal to the annual average, or even a little higher. Plumbers, being employed mainly on indoor work in buildings, and in particular on the installation and repair of heating and lighting equipment, are thus the last to feel both the slack season and the revival of activity in the building industry.

As they are less affected by bad weather than the other workers and it is easier for them to find employment in other industries during the slack season in building, plumbers are less affected by seasonal fluctuations. Together with carpenters, who, like them, are able to find work outside the industry, for instance in the wood and furniture-making industry, they have the smallest range of seasonal fluctuations (1.8, or 0.38 times the annual average) and the smallest standard deviation (0.58 per 100 insured workers, or 0.12 times the annual average). On the other hand, their index of concentration is very low (0.08) and their index of prolongation very high (0.83). During seven months their unemployment rate is above the annual average, but not much. The seasonal fluctuations in unemployment are therefore not so intense for plumbers, but they are very prolonged.

Different Parts of the United Kingdom

28. The British statistics provide the necessary data for studying the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment in building and the construction of works together for different parts of the United Kingdom. We shall consider the County of London, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, for which continuous monthly statistics are available for a period of ten years (1913 to 1922)[1], and compare the seasonal fluctuations for these areas with those

[1] But see the second footnote to section 20 concerning the gaps for certain months of 1919 and 1920.

for the whole of the United Kingdom during the period. The figures are given in table III.

TABLE III. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN BUILDING AND THE CONSTRUCTION OF WORKS IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1913-1922[1]

Month, etc.	Number of unemployed per 100 insured workers					Monthly index of unemployment				
	United Kingdom	London	Wales	Scotland	Ireland	United Kingdom	London	Wales	Scotland	Ireland
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Jan.	6.1	8.5	2.5	4.4	13.7	1.69	1.47	1.67	2.20	1.46
Feb.	5.2	8.8	2.1	3.1	12.1	1.44	1.52	1.40	1.55	1.29
March	3.7	6.0	1.7	2.1	10.6	1.03	1.03	1.13	1.05	1.13
April	2.9	4.2	1.4	1.4	9.7	0.81	0.72	0.93	0.70	1.03
May	2.6	4.2	1.3	1.2	8.5	0.72	0.72	0.87	0.60	0.90
June	2.7	4.7	1.1	1.2	7.6	0.75	0.81	0.73	0.60	0.81
July	2.9	4.8	1.1	1.2	6.7	0.81	0.83	0.73	0.60	0.71
Aug.	2.6	3.8	1.1	1.3	7.2	0.72	0.66	0.73	0.65	0.77
Sept.	2.8	4.7	1.1	1.4	7.6	0.78	0.81	0.73	0.70	0.81
Oct.	3.1	5.9	1.2	1.6	7.3	0.86	1.02	0.80	0.80	0.78
Nov.	3.6	6.4	1.2	2.1	9.5	1.00	1.10	0.80	1.05	1.01
Dec.	4.9	7.1	2.1	2.8	12.8	1.36	1.22	1.40	1.40	1.36
Average of 12 months	3.6	5.8	1.5	2.0	9.4	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	Jan. 6.1	Feb.-Jan. 8.8 8.5	Jan. 2.5	Jan. 4.4	Jan. 13.7	Jan. 1.69	Feb.-Jan. 1.52 1.4	Jan. 1.67	Jan. 2.20	Jan. 1.46
Minimum	May-Aug. 2.6	Aug. 3.8	June - Sept. 1.1	May-July 1.2	July 6.7	May-Aug. 0.72	Aug. 0.66	June - Sept. 0.73	May-July 0.60	July 0.71
α or *max—min*	3.5	5.0	1.4	3.2	7.0	0.97	0.86	0.94	1.60	0.75
$\frac{\alpha}{min}$	1.35	1.32	1.27	2.67	1.04	1.35	1.32	1.27	2.67	1.04
σ	1.13	1.61	0.47	0.95	2.29	0.31	0.28	0.31	0.48	0.24
β or index of concentration	0.15	0.13	0.10	0.16	0.12	0.15	0.13	0.10	0.16	0.12
γ or index of prolongation	0.70	0.74	0.78	0.68	0.76	0.70	0.74	0.78	0.68	0.76

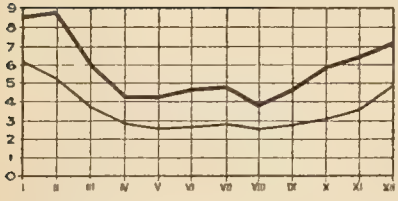
[1] The figures are calculated by the method of extended medians.

The table at once brings out the great difference between the average rate of unemployment for the year in building and the construction of works during the period 1913-1922 (3.6 per 100 insured) and that calculated above (table II) for the same industry and by a similar method for the period 1913-1927 (7.5 per 100 insured). This is yet another confirmation of the great increase in unemployment during the last few years in the building industry of the United Kingdom which has already been observed above (section 21).

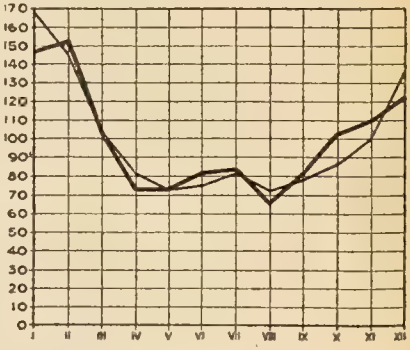
UNITED KINGDOM. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY, 1913-1922

United Kingdom as a whole.
Different parts of the United Kingdom.

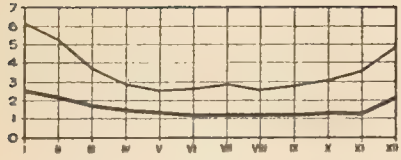
UNEMPLOYED PER 100 INSURED WORKERS

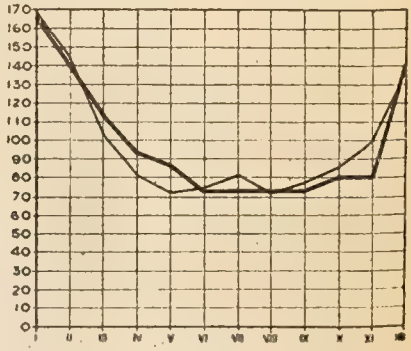


MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

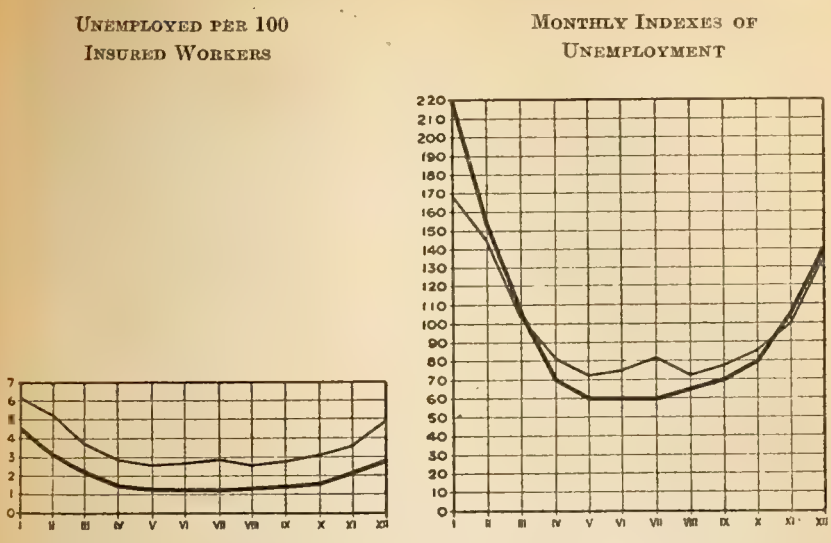


FIGURES 19 AND 20: LONDON

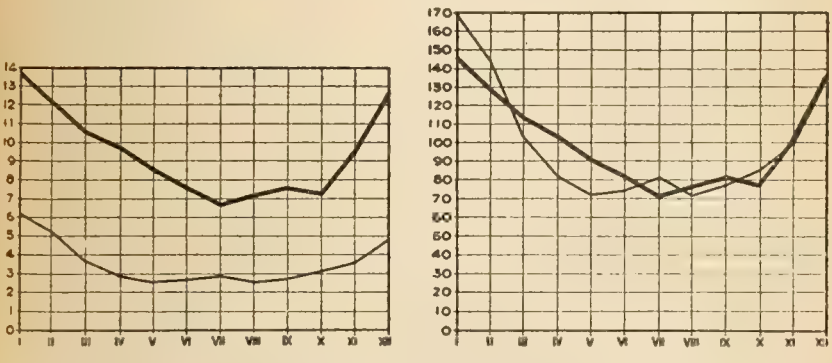




FIGURES 21 AND 22: WALES



FIGURES 23 AND 24 : SCOTLAND



FIGURES 25 AND 26 : IRELAND

It will also be seen that the rate of unemployment for each month and on an average is much higher in Ireland and much lower in Wales. The difference between the two countries is enormous ; the average in Ireland is six times as high as in Wales. The rate of unemployment in London too is higher throughout the year than the average for the whole Kingdom. In Scotland, on the other hand, the rate approaches that of Wales and is hardly more than half the average for the United Kingdom. Whether the district is situated in the north or in the south does not thus appear to be the deciding factor in the determination of the average rate of unemployment in the building industry.

29. As regards the monthly fluctuations in unemployment, we find :

(*a*) London has an unemployment curve with two maxima and two minima (see Figures 19 and 20). This curve has its absolute maximum in January[1], then falls rapidly from March onwards, reaches its first minimum at the end of April, rises perceptibly from May onwards, and, though remaining below the average for the year, has a second maximum in July, then falls again and reaches its absolute minimum in August, rises again in September, is very slightly above the average in October, and enters on a period of more intense and increasing unemployment in November and December. The absolute minimum for London, therefore, does not occur in June nor in September or October as has hitherto been found to be the case, but in the height of summer, in August. The work of " spring cleaning "[2], combined with the general revival of building, accentuates the resumption of activity and the fall of unemployment in April and May but comes to a stop in June. As for the unusual fall of unemployment in August, it must no doubt be ascribed mainly to the fact that in a vast urban centre like London very many public buildings (Government departments, schools, libraries, museums, theatres, etc.) concentrate their repairs and decorations in the holidays, and that a large number of commercial and financial institutions also tend to have this work done at the time of year when business is slack owing to summer holidays. In view of the large proportion that London workers are of all workers, and especially of the unemployed, in the United Kingdom, the movement of the London curve affects that for the whole Kingdom ; but in the latter the August minimum does not fall below that of May. In any case, this fall in August is peculiar to London and is not to be found in Wales, Scotland, or Ireland. Is it perhaps characteristic of large urban centres in the northern hemisphere ? This seems very possible and it would be interesting to verify it in other ways.

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[1] According to table III, unemployment in February is even higher than in January, but this is only one of the fictitious results, due to the intervention of non-seasonal circumstances, that the method of calculation is sometimes powerless to eliminate owing to the shortness of the series ; another example has already been mentioned above (section 25) in speaking of labourers. In actual fact, during the ten years considered the absolute maximum occurs nine times in January, and only once (in 1919) in February, owing to an extraordinary recrudescence of unemployment in that month (even the figure for May was much higher than that for January in 1919) under the obvious influence of demobilisation.

[2] Cf. Norman B. DEARLE : *Problems of Unemployment in the London Building Trades*, p. 69.

(*b*) In spite of the small proportion that Welsh workers are of the total number, and especially of the unemployed, and in spite of the great difference between the annual average unemployment in Wales and the rest of the United Kingdom, the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in Wales are those which, relatively speaking, deviate least from the general curve for the Kingdom. This will be seen by comparing the figures in columns (7) and (9) of table III (or from Figure 22). The great stability of unemployment in Wales during the summer and autumn will also be observed.

(*c*) What is particularly striking in the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in Scotland is the exceptionally sharp relative rise of unemployment in January, when the rate is more than twice the average for the year. There is also a very heavy relative fall in summer (to 40 per cent. of the average). Whether this is the result of the situation of the country in the extreme north of the United Kingdom, or of a special distribution of occupations in the industry, or of some other reason (methods of working, organisation, etc.), is a question that deserves further examination.

(*d*) Ireland is the part of the United Kingdom where the absolute fluctuations in the rate of unemployment are strongest, but where the fluctuations compared with the average for the year (which itself is very high) are weakest (Figures 25 and 26). The non-seasonal elements in unemployment, which is already so high in Ireland, are thus even more marked than in the other parts of the United Kingdom. Reference may also be made to the slight fall in unemployment in October. Perhaps the reason may be that the proportion of bricklayers in the total number of workers is higher in Ireland than elsewhere.

Our various measures of the effect of seasonal influences may be used to give definite numerical expression to these comparisons. For Wales the range of the relative monthly fluctuations is nearly equal to that for the whole Kingdom (0.94 and 0.97 respectively); the standard deviation for the relative figures is exactly the same for both (0.31); but the index of concentration for Wales is lowest (0.10) and the index of prolongation highest (0.78). In Scotland the range of the relative fluctuations (1.60), the standard deviation (0.48), and the index of concentration (0.16) are much the highest, and the index of prolongation is the lowest (0.68). Taking the absolute figures, Ireland has much the largest range of fluctuations and standard deviation (7.0 and 2.29 respectively), whereas the relative figures are much the lowest (0.75 and 0.25). London is in a similar position to Ireland, but comes after it: the absolute

intensity of the seasonal fluctuations is the greatest (range 5.0 and standard deviation 1.61) and the relative intensity the lowest (0.86 and 0.28) after Ireland. The index of concentration varies little from one part of the United Kingdom to the other, except in Scotland, where, as already stated, it is particularly high, mainly on account of the high relative unemployment in January.

The effects of regional differences on the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment are thus considerable ; but they seem to be less than those produced by differences of occupation.

(To be continued.)

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

The Effects of Special Legislation on the Employment Opportunities of Women in the United States

The Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labour has recently published a report on its investigation into the effects of labour legislation on the employment opportunities of women.[1] For the study of the problems of women's work, growing steadily in importance with the rapidly increasing participation of women in all branches of social life, this investigation will be found of fundamental value. As the question of protective labour legislation for women is hotly contested in feminist circles, especially in Anglo-Saxon countries, the report of this official enquiry, of which a summary is given below, will arouse great interest not only in these countries but also in those where the desirability of special protection for working women is not disputed.[2]

Origin and Plan of the Enquiry

The investigation was undertaken by the Federal Women's Bureau at the request of the second Women's Industrial Conference, which met in January 1926 at the invitation of the Women's Bureau. One group participating in the Conference reiterated the position taken by their organisation against labour legislation applicable to women only, the ground of their opposition being that it handicapped women in securing and retaining employment. They urged that the Women's Bureau undertake a study. All members of the Conference, those opposed to and those in favour of such legislation, were in accord with this recommendation, believing that the facts should be secured. The controversy concerning the subject, however, made it profoundly important that the procedure of investigation should be so planned as to ensure objective conclusions.

One means of ensuring this objectivity in procedure was to appoint two committees: one advisory committee to give technical advice, composed of persons having experience in carrying forward industrial

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[1] United States. Department of Labour, Women's Bureau: *The Effects of Labour Legislation on the Employment Opportunities of Women.* Bulletin of the Women's Bureau, No. 65. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. 500 pp.

[2] This summary is largely quoted from the Foreword (pages xv-xx), which was contributed by the Technical Advisory Committee, and from Chapters I and II of the report (pages 1-54), which themselves contain a general survey of the situation and a summary of the results of the investigation and the conclusions drawn from it; these conclusions are given here in full. The remainder of the volume gives the results of the investigation in greater detail.

investigations, and a second composed of representatives of organisations advocating special legislation for women and representatives of a national organisation opposing it. This was an idea taken over from the recommendations of the United States Commission on Industrial Relations, particularly the minority report presented by Professor John R. Commons, urging that in the administration of labour legislation controversial issues should be met by having both sides represented in advisory committees. These committees could be kept informed constantly of the progress of investigations and of the administration of labour laws and would be free to express their assent or dissent when reports were published.

Unfortunately, this plan of the second advisory committee proved impossible to carry out. Those opposed to special labour laws for women urged that the investigation be conducted from the beginning mainly through public hearings. The advocates of special labour legislation, the majority of whom were themselves women in industry, representing organisations of women in industry, were opposed to public hearings on the ground that testimony given on such occasions by working women might jeopardise their positions and could not be relied upon to bring out all the facts. When their opponents on the committee, in their efforts to secure the adoption of their recommendation on procedure in making the study, induced their members in the States to write letters to Congressmen designed to discredit the investigation before it was begun and to bring charges of prejudice and unfair dealing against the Women's Bureau, the representatives of industrial organisations and those favouring special labour legislation withdrew from the committee, holding that it was not fulfilling its proper functions, that they could not agree with the recommendations for public hearings, and that no useful purpose could be served by the agitation resulting from this disagreement in the preliminary planning of the study. This committee, therefore, lacking representation of advocates of special legislation for women, was automatically dissolved.

The Technical Advisory Committee of experts in industrial investigation advised throughout the enquiry on the best method of collecting and presenting the material. The Chairman of this Committee was Miss Mary van Kleeck, Director of the Department of Industrial Studies of the Russell Sage Foundation. Miss van Kleeck has had many years of experience in making industrial investigations, and has published a number of reports of great social value. She served as a member of the President's Conference on Unemployment in 1921; she was a member of the Committee on Unemployment and Business Cycles, 1922-1923; and she was the first Director of the Women's Bureau (then the Woman in Industry Service), and was therefore especially well equipped to understand the requirements of the work in hand.

The second member of the committee was Dr. Charles P. Neill, Manager of the Bureau of Information of the South-Eastern Railways. Dr. Neill was United States Commissioner of Labour from 1905 to 1913, and conducted the monumental investigation into the condition of woman and child wage earners in the United States which was made during that period. He has served as president of the American Statis-

tical Association, was a member of the United States Immigration Commission in 1907-1910, and a member of the United States Coal Commission in 1922 and 1923.

The third member of the committee was Dr. Lillian M. Gilbreth, who, as psychologist and as consulting engineer in management, has made practical studies of industrial fatigue. She is a member of the Taylor Society and an honorary member of the Society of Industrial Engineers, and is the author of several books on time and motion studies in industry.

Regarding the scope of the investigation, the Foreword states that in the working out of the plan several surrounding circumstances had to be taken into consideration. These were (1) the large numbers of women employed in industry; (2) variety in the occupations in which they were engaged; (3) varying conditions not only in different industries but in different localities and in different establishments in the same industry and the same community; (4) changes in industrial equipment, in machinery, and in the development of the country from agricultural to industrial pursuits, which have been coincident with labour legislation and with many other changing factors influencing the employment of women; (5) different backgrounds in public opinion in the different States, as shown in the history of labour laws in Massachusetts, New York, and California; (6) the controversial character of the problem as already described; and (7) the range of possible effects of labour laws which could be set down as hypotheses in the beginning and would require examination.

In approaching the subject, it was taken for granted that one result of labour legislation was the establishment of certain standards of employment which are socially beneficial. But the investigations were not centred upon this, as it was clear that the social effects of labour legislation would be a different subject. Certain other questions, such as the effect on industry itself, whether labour laws cause movement from one State to another, restrict or enlarge production, and in general how labour laws affect industrial efficiency, were also excluded from the enquiry as being beyond its scope.

The point upon which it was desirable to focus attention was evidently the possible curtailment of opportunities for women through the substitution of men, by reason of labour laws applying to women only. This was the real object of the enquiry.

When the investigators set to work, the question they sought to answer was this: What have been the actual changes in the proportion of men and women as measurable statistically from plant records over a series of years during which labour legislation was being enacted, as compared with changes in the same industry in a State not having similar legislation? It was proposed to secure this information by examining payroll records and procuring from them the particulars and dates of changes in the proportion of men and women employed, and by interviewing employers and workers to learn what had been the factors in these changes.

This technique had to be radically altered, because plant records were lacking in precision, as they did not give the information for

specified occupations and often did not give it separately for men and women. It would have been possible to secure those records for a few plants, but these were likely to be the better managed and not typical of general conditions. In order to get a more inclusive picture of many occupations in different States it was necessary to change the technique. Instead of a statistical study supplemented by interviews the enquiry had to be made by means of interviews supplemented by statistics.

The technique of studying prohibited occupations resolves itself into a study of these occupations in those places where they are not prohibited, in order to discover whether their prohibition deprives women of advantageous opportunities for employment. It is pointed out that special labour legislation may be divided broadly into two parts: (1) laws definitely prohibiting the employment of women; (2) laws regulating their employment. The laws which regulate their employment may become prohibitory in their actual effects. There are two different problems of investigation involved in studying these two types of legislation.

In the industries and occupations studied, establishments employing in all more than 650,000 men and women were covered. The base for the facts was therefore broad. As regards conclusions, however, the Technical Advisory Committee point out in their Foreword that the first caution in the reading of the report, which is demonstrated again and again in the material, is the impossibility of generalisation, the necessity for recognising differences in different occupations, different industries, and different localities.

Occupational Distribution of Women's Employment in the United States

According to the figures of the 1920 census, over eight and a half million women in the United States at that time were engaged in gainful occupations. These women were working under a great variety of conditions, for this number included the independent worker, the worker who was the only employee, and the worker who was one of many in a large business or industrial establishment. To some of these occupations legal regulations of hours and other conditions of employment for women apply; to others they do not; so that according to the most reliable estimates available only about a third of the eight and a half million women come under such legal regulations.

The table on page 235 shows the total number of women engaged in gainful occupations in each State, as well as the proportion which that number forms of all the women in the State. It is based on figures taken from the Census of Occupations for 1920.

It is apparent from this table that the women in gainful occupations are of minor importance in some States, while in others they are numerous enough to assume very great significance.

The Trend of Employment

The number of persons engaged in non-agricultural pursuits has increased more rapidly over the 50-year period from 1870 to 1920 than has the population, and this is true for both men and women. During

PROPORTION OF WOMEN IN GAINFUL OCCUPATIONS IN 1920, BY STATE[1]

State	Females 10 years of age and over		
	Total number	Engaged in gainful occupations	
		Number	Per cent.
Alabama	869,077	223,868	25.8
Arizona	111,810	18,386	16.4
Arkansas	634,933	115,810	18.2
California	1,339,057	286,647	21.4
Colorado	351,853	62,587	17.8
Connecticut	540,073	146,252	27.1
Delaware	87,128	18,102	20.8
Florida	365,637	85,262	23.3
Georgia	1,080,976	288,745	26.7
Idaho	146,103	17,509	12.0
Illinois	2,537,438	540,938	21.3
Indiana	1,157,492	185,385	16.0
Iowa	932,795	141,321	15.2
Kansas	676,228	92,510	13.7
Kentucky	904,259	131,493	14.5
Louisiana	681,108	152,726	22.4
Maine	306,658	64,845	21.1
Maryland	576,020	137,221	23.8
Massachusetts	1,591,865	503,155	31.6
Michigan	1,358,977	245,383	18.1
Minnesota	890,255	164,066	18.4
Mississippi	670,099	194,964	29.1
Missouri	1,352,024	244,615	18.1
Montana	185,857	28,278	15.2
Nebraska	484,262	71,789	14.8
Nevada	24,500	4,334	17.7
New Hampshire	180,644	49,302	27.3
New Jersey	1,237,914	295,990	23.9
New Mexico	123,769	14,941	12.1
New York	4,215,968	1,135,295	26.9
North Carolina	926,790	202,697	21.9
North Dakota	218,221	28,328	13.0
Ohio	2,242,416	409,970	18.3
Oklahoma	716,198	94,594	13.2
Oregon	295,928	54,492	18.4
Pennsylvania	3,321,983	686,232	20.7
Rhode Island	246,672	80,562	32.7
South Carolina	615,092	205,656	33.4
South Dakota	223,512	29,686	13.3
Tennessee	884,810	152,108	17.2
Texas	1,708,209	303,843	17.8
Utah	159,235	21,783	13.7
Vermont	139,947	26,899	19.2
Virginia	862,375	156,210	18.1
Washington	496,641	92,900	18.7
West Virginia	512,778	57,439	11.2
Wisconsin	997,362	182,365	18.3
Wyoming	62,677	9,402	15.0

[1] UNITED STATES. BUREAU OF THE CENSUS: Fourteenth Census, 1920, Vol. 4: *Population, Occupations*, p. 47, Table 8.

this period women were assuming a somewhat more important place in the general activity; in 1920 they formed a slightly larger percentage of the total number of people in gainful occupations outside agriculture in the country as a whole than they had done in 1870, the figures for each decade being as follows :

Year	Employed women (percentage)
1870	20.9
1880	20.4
1890	22.5
1900	22.7
1910	24.2
1920	24.2

The slight increase since 1870 in the proportion of women employed is not, however, the really significant fact in connection with the development of women's opportunity. Of far more immediate importance is the shifting of women's occupations from one field to another that was conspicuous during the decade from 1910 to 1920. Considered in connection with the legislative regulations that apply to the different types of women's employment, these shifts are most significant. In 1910 there were 203 occupations in which 1,000 or more women were employed ; in 1920 the occupations in this group had increased in number to 232, and a very large part of this increase was in occupations in manufacturing and mechanical industries and professional service. Increases of 50,000 or more occurred among women who were clerks in offices, stenographers and typists, book-keepers and cashiers, teachers, saleswomen, telephone operators, trained nurses, and clerks in stores. Decreases of 50,000 or more occurred among farm labourers at home, farm labourers working out, cooks, general servants, laundresses, dressmakers, seamstresses not in factories, and milliners and millinery dealers.

On the whole, the great change seems to have been a decrease among women working in or for the home and in personal service occupations, and a corresponding increase in clerical and allied occupations, in teaching, and in nursing, all of which had been woman-employing occupations for many decades, but had not before reached such numerical importance.

In manufacturing and mechanical industries, which are the really important groups as far as labour legislation for women is concerned, it is necessary to search more closely for the significant changes. Increases since 1910 of more than 10,000 women were found among semi-skilled operatives in the food, iron and steel, and clothing industries, in silk and knitting mills, and in electrical supply, shoe, and cigar and tobacco factories, among labourers in cotton mills, and among forewomen and overseers in manufacturing. The most striking increase shown for women in any industrial group is that for operatives in automobile factories, among whom there was an increase of 1,408 per cent. In the entire iron and steel industry women increased 145.4 per cent. as semi-skilled operatives. A slightly larger increase (148.1 per cent.) occurred among women operatives in electrical supply factories. Many

of the changes that took place in the manufacturing and mechanical industries were indicative of changes within the industries themselves and showed increases for men also. It is interesting to find that while women operatives in automobile factories increased 1,408 per cent. (from 848 in 1910 to 12,788 in 1920), the largest percentage increase for women in any one industry, men operatives in automobile factories increased 435.4 per cent (from 20,243 in 1910 to 108,376 in 1920), the second largest percentage increase for men. In this one rapidly developing industry the employment of women was increasing at a greater rate than that of men, though the actual number of new employees was enormously greater for men than for women.

In studying all occupations employing an appreciable number (1,000 or more) of both men and women in 1910 and 1920, an interesting situation was found to exist. The changes in rate of increase or decrease for the two sexes were entirely disproportionate, and in by far the greater number of cases the women took the lead in the rate of increase. Of course, in most of the occupations considered, men still were numerically far above women, and the conspicuously large percentage increases shown for women in certain occupations — for example, automobiles — are the direct result of small basic figures in 1910; but these huge increases none the less indicate that more and more industrial opportunities are being offered to women.

The Application of Legislation to Women in Gainful Occupations

The same decade that saw in many industrial processes numerical and proportionate increases in the number of women employed also saw the enactment of important and inclusive legal regulations for this employment. A simple correlation between these two facts, however, would not be reliable nor significant because of several qualifications that must be allowed for first. Most essential of all qualifications of legal matters is the exact application of the laws, and this qualification is an especially important one in connection with the labour legislation in question. In no case do these laws cover all women's occupations, and one of the most important limitations of the industrial code set up for women is the variations in the wording and interpretation of each individual enactment and in the policies and practices of the enforcing officials.

Most of the women in gainful occupations are not affected by any of the labour laws relating to the employment of women. In the first place, not all of those working for gain are in the employ of another person, and, in the second place, not all employed women are engaged in occupations ordinarily covered by such laws. The Census furnishes the only figures that can be used to determine how many women are covered by hour laws or night-work laws, though frequently it is impossible to make the Census classification of occupations fit the occupations or industries that are specified by the State laws. Then again, in certain States the laws are broad in their application, covering many

different types of employment, but in other States the law applies only to very circumscribed groups of women, who form but a small part of the wage-earning population. However, using the Census material as a basis, and noting the necessary qualifications of the scope of each specific State law, an estimate has been made for each State of the number of women whose hours or time of work were regulated.

The particular groups of employees covered by hour laws or night-work laws vary from State to State, but such legislation is most likely to apply to workers in factories, stores, and laundries, to telephone operators, and to the employees of hotels and restaurants. Occasionally clerical workers are included, and in a few States the laws are so worded that they might apply to any woman working in the employ of another person. The main Census divisions under which these workers are classed are manufacturing and mechanical industries, which include all those employed in factories and workshops; trade, which covers the mercantile workers; domestic service, under which are found laundry operatives and the employees of hotels and restaurants; and transportation, which includes the telephone operators.

Regulatory Legislation in Manufacturing Industries

Considering first the women in manufacturing industries, who are a fairly homogeneous group in regard to the requirements of their employment and the possibilities of adjustment to the standards set by legislation, there are three types of legislation applying to women only, the effects of which have been considered: first, daily and weekly hour limitations; second, prohibition or regulation of night work; and third, the requirement of special working conditions.

Hour Laws.

The records of the scheduled hours of the women in 18 States cover altogether 233,288 women employed in 2,608 plants — factories, stores, and laundries. They show, on the whole, great variations in standards of hours. Of all the women for whom scheduled hours were reported, only slightly more than one-fifth were on a daily schedule of 8 hours or less, but more than a third had weekly schedules of 48 hours or less. At the other end of the scale were about one-sixth of the women with scheduled hours of 10 or more daily and more than 54 weekly.

As regards the application of hour laws to the women in five important woman-employing industries (boots and shoes, hosiery, paper boxes, electrical products, and clothing), the investigation has shown that such legal limitations of women's hours of work have not brought about any degree of substitution of men for women. Two minor isolated cases in hosiery plants, where men had been substituted for women because the women could not work more than 9 hours a day, were the sum total of *bona fide* instances found of decreased employment for women resulting from the enforcement of hour legislation in these

five industries. From the many interviews held with employers it was apparent that they engaged women for certain work because they wanted women for that work, and the legal limitation of women's hours did not prevent their doing so. Nor was it the legal limitation of hours that kept women from being promoted to supervisory positions. Very few women supervisors were found in the States where legislation restricted their hours, but there were equally few in the States where legislative standards were so liberal as to be practically non-existent.

In another group of manufacturing establishments — those employing men longer hours than were permitted for women — a slightly different situation had resulted from the legislation limiting women's hours of work. Here, also, there was no evidence of any decrease in women's employment because they could not work so long as could men, but in a comparatively small number of cases there might be additional jobs open to women if they could work longer hours. These jobs, however, bore no evidence of especially valuable occupational opportunity.

Without the limitations of the hour laws some women undoubtedly would be employed much longer hours, but in most of the establishments operating longer hours for men than were legally permitted for women the women's work was so adjusted that it could be performed during a shorter period, and there was no need of their extended employment. In some cases it was customary to put men on women's work for the overtime hours necessary. This did not involve a replacement of women but was merely an adjustment to prevent their working longer hours. Most significant of all is the fact that more than half the employers who required of men longer hours than were legal for women stated that they would not employ women for such hours even did the law permit it.

On the whole, legislative hour restrictions of women's work play a very minor part in influencing their position and opportunities in manufacturing industries. Employers have very generally accepted the fact that long hours do not make for efficient production. Competition between firms often leads to decreased hours so that a better type of labour may be attracted, and cases were even reported of a reduction in hours to lessen the competition for labour resulting from a legal standard of short hours for women in a neighbouring State.

It is not unusual for manufacturing establishments to reduce hours, and such reductions, from whatever cause, commonly are not looked upon as handicaps to employees. In States with 48-hour or 50-hour laws for women these laws have been the main factors in causing reductions of hours in woman-employing industries, but they were not by any means the only factors, and many reductions in hours have occurred as part of the normal development of industrial standards without producing any serious upheaval in employment policies.

Not only have there been practically no instances of actual decreases in women's employment as a result of hour legislation, but the general status of their opportunity seems not to have been limited by this type of law. Women were employed as extensively in California as in Indiana, in Massachusetts as in New York. In fact, because in

certain States women cannot work overtime, the result in some cases has been not a restriction of their employment but increased opportunity for them. This is due to the fact that, in States where women's hours are so limited that they cannot work overtime, it is not unusual for establishments to employ additional women when there is extra work, or else to carry a larger force of women the year around in order to be prepared for the rush seasons. In States where there is little or no legal regulation of women's hours the establishment may, instead of employing extra women for these rush periods, keep the women already on the rolls for very much longer hours. One of the most important effects of hour legislation on women's opportunities is, therefore, to increase the number of jobs available for them.

Further illustration of the fact that hour laws have not limited women's opportunities in industry was given by the actual experiences of working women who had been employed at the time when some hour legislation went into effect. Not one woman had found that such legislation had handicapped her or limited her opportunity in industry. As a result of the laws, hours had been decreased for the majority of women, but this was the only result experienced generally enough to be significant.

Night-Work Laws.

So much for the daily and weekly hour laws applying to women in industry. Night-work laws have a different story. If a plant carries on women's occupations during hours when women may not be employed, the alternative is to put men on these occupations. However, the important fact about this situation is that such substitution occurs in less than half the plants that operate at night. It is much more usual to find that the plant that operates a night shift does not run at night the occupations on which women normally are employed. There is an astonishingly strong feeling among employers in industry against the employment of women at night, irrespective of legal regulation. Night work, considered undesirable for men, is considered very much more undesirable for women.

There are, of course, an appreciable number of employers who would like to use women when the night shift includes women's occupations. In most of such establishments, however, the fact that this cannot be done does not decrease the day work of women. Instead, women are employed as fully as possible during the daytime, and the substitution of men on women's jobs at night is the extent of the restriction of women's employment resulting from the night-work prohibition.

Though this is true in by far the greater number of plants running women's occupations at night, sometimes the fact that women cannot be employed at night reduces or eliminates their employment during the daytime. However, this occurs not only under the legal prohibition of night work; one of the most striking examples found of such a situation was in a State where there is no night-work law for women. In some plants that run on a three-shift system it is customary for the employees on the different shifts to change from one to another at

stated intervals, in this way each taking a turn at the day, the evening, and the night shifts. Where the law prohibits women's work on the night shift their employment in such plants may be limited on the day shift also because of the necessity for rotating shifts.

On the whole, in most localities and industries night work for either men or women is frowned upon and is decreasing. In some establishments women would be employed at night if the law permitted, and in an even smaller number of cases increased numbers of women might be employed in the daytime if they could work at night. To this extent the night-work laws restrict women's opportunity.

Laws regulating Working Conditions.

In addition to the legal limitation of hours and night work for women in industry there are regulations that stipulate certain working conditions and sanitary arrangements where women are employed. This type of legislation is almost entirely a reflection of the standards of efficient management, and as such its effects in terms of women's employment are extremely difficult to measure. It is not likely that many establishments will be found that refuse to employ women because they must have a separate lavatory or service facilities. The provision of chairs is another minor matter so closely allied to efficiency and production that it cannot be measured easily in terms of possible discrimination against women. There is one type of working-condition requirement, however, that has caused considerable discussion and that it has been possible to investigate. This is the legal stipulation that special partitions and ventilating devices shall be provided when women are employed in core rooms. It has been claimed that the requirement of such devices and the restriction of the weight that women may lift have resulted in the elimination of women from this occupation. In the State of Massachusetts such regulations went into effect in 1917, but there is no evidence that any plant dismissed women or curtailed their employment because of the requirement of partitions and special ventilation. There were plants that had cut down the number of women core makers for other reasons, but the regulation in question so obviously was the standard accepted by the industry that it had little effect on women's employment. The regulation requiring that women should not be allowed to carry core and core box whose combined weight was more than 25 pounds perhaps had proved a slight handicap in one or two cases, though in the majority of establishments women were working on such small cores that this regulation had no effect on the work they were doing. In one or two establishments the employer stated that he would have tried women on larger cores had it not been for the need to watch weights carefully lest they infringe the law. It does not seem likely, however, that this can be a serious handicap to women, as in the very large majority of core rooms they were found to be working on small cores requiring the delicate touch of light fingers. Such work commonly is accepted as the type on which women are most successfully employed.

Laws applying to Special Occupations

After examining the question of hours legislation in stores and legislation applying to special occupations, such as waitresses and elevator operators, the report discusses the conditions of street-car conductors, ticket agents, and women employed in transportation, and states that the entire situation with regard to the effect of legislation on women's employment in transportation is so complicated and subject to so many exceptions that it cannot be summarised briefly.

The effect of hour limitations and night-work prohibitions on the employment of women in printing and publishing is specially mentioned as a phase of legislative regulation that has aroused much controversy. These women are working in a trade that is highly organised and for which short daily and weekly hours are customary. Therefore, laws limiting the number of daily and weekly hours that women may work have had little effect, because their usual hours are shorter than, or at least as short as, those stipulated by law.

On the other hand, for some women in the printing trades night-work prohibition has proved to be a handicap. A large part of the publication of morning papers and some of the work on afternoon papers necessarily is night work. For many occupations in such establishments it is customary to allocate employees to the various shifts by their seniority rights, a system similar to that in force in transportation companies. If women cannot take their turn on the night shifts they cannot enter the trades nor use their seniority rights on an equal basis with men, and their employment is made much more difficult. The night-work law that was enforced at one time for women in newspaper offices in New York State undoubtedly proved a handicap to some women. The effect of this law, however, was not extensive, because comparatively few women were employed in the occupations and under the conditions regulated. In fact, a study made in New York five years after the exemption of these women from the provisions of the law showed that only 40 of 150 women, employed on 77 newspapers, were working at night. Nevertheless, among the women employed at night in printing establishments there are some who are highly skilled, well paid, and thoroughly satisfied with their work, and the prohibition of such employment would be a decided handicap to them.

Prohibitory Legislation

All the legislation discussed in the foregoing paragraphs is regulatory in type. Occasionally, as in the case of the women printers and some of the women in transportation, this legislation has become prohibitory in its result. On the whole, however, its purpose, and its accomplishment, has been to regulate but not to eliminate the women employed in various occupations or industries. The effects of the laws prohibiting employment in certain occupations are very different from those of the regulatory laws. Prohibitory laws have really only one effect — the

elimination of women from the occupations covered. The importance or significance of this elimination is the one necessary qualification in a measurement of the effect.

A list of the occupations prohibited for women by the laws of one or more States is a long one. Some of these laws are insignificant in their possible effect on women, but certain of them deserve very careful consideration. The prohibited occupations studied in the course of this investigation were grinding, polishing, and buffing, electric and acetylene welding, taxicab driving, and gas and electric meter reading.

Grinding, Polishing, and Buffing.

The prohibition of grinding, polishing, and buffing occurs in Ohio and New York. In other States women are successfully employed on these operations, the employers are satisfied with their work, and the women are enthusiastic about both the job and the pay. The laws prohibiting work on such operations originated as safety measures at a time when modern safeguards and improvements of machinery had not been installed. Under present conditions, however, the prohibition of such work — sometimes highly skilled but in many cases purely automatic and often done under excellent conditions — seems to be a restriction of women's opportunity. Of course there are many types of these operations that are not suitable and probably cannot be made suitable for women. This is not sufficient justification, however, for prohibiting all such employment for women.

Electric and Acetylene Welding.

The same thing seems to be true of electric and acetylene welding. Though women acetylene welders are not employed in any great numbers, they occasionally are employed with very great success, while some processes of electric welding employ successfully considerable numbers of women on work that is practically automatic and involves almost no hazards.

Taxicab Driving.

Until recently, women in Ohio could not be employed as taxicab drivers, and yet in New York and California and Massachusetts and Pennsylvania a few women are doing this work with perfect success and satisfaction. In fact, in Pennsylvania, one company inaugurated a fleet of cabs driven by women chauffeurs, and it was reported that the women were most satisfactory in every way.

Gas and Electric Meter Reading.

The effects of legislation prohibiting gas and electric meter reading by women are unimportant, because practically no women are engaged in these occupations, though the work is prohibited for women in only two States. A number of public utility companies tried women at this

work during the war, but they found it not very successful and transferred the women to other departments.

Conclusions

It is a difficult thing to measure what the prohibitory laws may have done to women's opportunities in the States where they are in effect. However, from the fact that women are successfully employed elsewhere in many of the prohibited occupations, it appears that the prohibition must be something of a restriction where it exists. This restriction affords the outstanding example of possible discrimination against women resulting from labour legislation.

In general, the regulatory hour laws as applied to women engaged in the manufacturing processes of industry do not handicap the women but serve to regulate employment and to establish the accepted standards of modern efficient industrial management. When applied to specific occupations, not entirely akin to the industrial work for which the laws were drawn, this regulatory legislation in a few instances has been a handicap to women.

Laws prohibiting night work for women in industry are chiefly a reflection of the usual attitude of employers regarding such practice, but occasionally they result in a limitation of women's employment. When applied indiscriminately to special occupations that are professional or semi-professional in type, night-work prohibition or regulation has resulted in restrictions of women's employment.

In almost every kind of employment the real forces that influence women's opportunity are far removed from legislative restriction of their hours or conditions of work. In manufacturing, the type of product, the division and simplification of manufacturing processes, the development of machinery and mechanical aids to production, the labour supply and its costs, and the general psychology of the times, all have played important parts in determining the position of women. These factors have varied with the different industries and localities, but everywhere they have been far more significant in their influence than has any law regulating women's hours of work.

In other occupations other influences have been dominant in determining the extent of women's employment. In stores a more liberal attitude and successful experimentation with women on new jobs; in restaurants the development of public opinion as to the type of service most suitable for women; in pharmacy a gradually increasing confidence in women's ability on the part of the public: in the metal trades a breaking down of the prejudices against women's employment on the part of employers and of male employees, and demonstration of women's ability along certain lines — these are the significant forces that have influenced and will continue to determine women's place among wage earners. Such forces have not been deflected by the enforcement of legislative standards and they will play the dominant part in assuring to women an equal chance in those occupations for which their abilities and aptitudes fit them.

Juvenile Employment in Sweden in 1927 and 1928[1]

At the last unemployment census, taken on 5 May 1927, juvenile unemployment in Sweden was found to have increased as compared with the results of the earlier censuses of 1909 and 1910. The proportion under 18 years of age of the total number of unemployed was 2.6 per cent. in 1909, 2.2 per cent. in 1910, but 5.9 per cent. in 1927. The 1927 figures further showed that the number of registered unemployed between the ages of 14 and 18 years rose with the age, the reason given being that the younger groups had often not yet tried to find employment, and therefore did not count themselves as unemployed. After the age of 18 and until 24 unemployment increased, no less than 31.7 per cent. of all the unemployed belonging to this group. The census would thus appear to show that the problem of juvenile unemployment affects young persons over, rather than under, 18 years of age. Since, however, the unemployment of young persons over 18 years of age may largely be ascribed to such causes as neglected technical training or incorrect choice of an occupation in early years, the question of openings for employment for juvenile workers is of the greatest importance. The Riksdag had this important aspect of the unemployment problem in mind when, in 1928, it approved the Bill for assigning a specified proportion of the credit for public employment exchanges to the financing of special arrangements at the exchanges, intended to facilitate vocational selection and the finding of employment for young workers.

There has been a considerable improvement on the Swedish labour market during the last few years. To determine how much this improvement affected young workers, the Social Board requested the public employment exchanges to supply information on their work in respect of applicants under 18 years of age during each month of the second quarter in 1927 and 1928. These figures, it was considered, would serve as a sufficient basis for estimating the changes in conditions. During the second quarter of the year the school year ends, a fact that inevitably affects the position on the juvenile labour market. There is nearly always an increase in the number of young applicants for work in June. The rise in the number of applicants from May to June was from 4,190 to 5,538 in 1927 and from 4,468 to 5,967 in 1928. The higher figures for 1928 are probably due to a greater use being made of the public employment exchanges, rather than to an increase in unemployment, for the number of vacancies increased more than the number of applicants. This appears from the following figures showing the average number of applicants per hundred vacancies for young persons under 18 years of age :

Year (average, April-June)	Boys	Girls	Total
1927	173	132	152
1928	161	123	141

[1] *Sociala Meddelanden*, No. 11, 1928. Stockholm.

The actual numbers of applicants, vacancies, and vacancies filled are shown in the following table :

Period	Boys			Girls			Total		
	Applicants	Vacancies	Vacancies filled	Applicants	Vacancies	Vacancies filled	Applicants	Vacancies	Vacancies filled
1927									
April	2,359	1,639	1,249	2,204	1,723	1,240	4,563	3,362	2,489
May	2,133	1,377	1,069	2,057	1,786	1,143	4,190	3,163	2,212
June	3,228	1,446	1,208	2,310	1,459	1,032	5,538	2,905	2,240
1928									
April	2,447	1,777	1,338	2,328	1,989	1,294	4,775	3,766	2,632
May	2,421	1,738	1,355	2,047	1,837	1,156	4,468	3,575	2,511
June	3,460	1,670	1,424	2,507	1,769	1,235	5,967	3,439	2,659

Detailed information is also given concerning the principal occupational groups. It is pointed out that only those children who have obtained some kind of training in a given trade during their school years have been placed in a specific group, all the rest being classified in the miscellaneous " children and unskilled minors " group.

To take first the boys, it is found that the number of vacancies in the group " Agriculture and Forestry " is in every case higher than the number of applicants. In " Industry and Handicrafts " there is a marked surplus of applicants, and owing to their lack of training some of them are difficult to place. The growing demand for labour in industry, however, has meant that this year it has been possible to place more boys as apprentices, etc., than was formerly the case. In small and medium-sized towns it is reported that most apprentices are placed by direct negotiation with the employer, and very little use is made of the employment exchanges. The figures given therefore relate chiefly to the three largest towns.

There is also a surplus of labour in the shipping group, due to the fact that, particularly in the northern ports, boys try to find work at sea.

The figures also show that there are plenty of openings in the commerce, transport, and general services group. These vacancies are mainly for errand boys. The fact that they are so numerous gives applicants a wide choice, and enables them to select openings which offer the opportunity of learning a trade.

As regards girls, the number of vacancies is adequate in all groups. This applies particularly to the Domestic Service group. The only group in which the number of vacancies was inadequate was that of " Industry and Handicrafts ", and this applies in the main to the textile and clothing industries.

The figures confirm the observation that the position in the juvenile labour market showed a decided tendency to continued improvement from 1927 to 1928.

Unemployment Insurance in Queensland in 1927-1928

The latest annual report[1] on the operation of the Queensland Unemployed Workers' Insurance Acts shows that the period July 1927 to June 1928 was again, as the previous year had been, a period of severe unemployment and financial difficulty for the Insurance Fund. The report states, however, that the Acts generally are working smoothly and satisfactorily, and that without doubt the provision or some measure of sustenance to workers during periods of enforced unemployment has proved a marked success.

It was found necessary, as a result of the drain on the Fund during the previous year, to increase the rate of contributions for the year 1927-1928 from 3d. to 4d. weekly, the increase applying alike to employers, workers, and the Crown. In view of the fact that, with unemployment at the prevailing level, this increase would not be sufficient to maintain the solvency of the Fund, it was further decided to raise the rate of contributions to 6d. weekly as from 1 July 1928. The Unemployment Council hopes that this increase will enable a substantial reserve to be established in order to safeguard the Fund against possible periods of severe unemployment arising from such unforeseen causes as drought, business depression, and general financial stringency.

Financial Operations

It is of interest to compare the account of financial operations given in this report with the figures given in previous annual reports.[2] The table on page 248 gives comparative figures for the annual receipts and disbursements of the Fund from 1 July 1923 to 30 June 1928.

The receipts from contributions during the year 1927-1928 totalled £342,297, as compared with £263,219 in 1926-1927, while the sustenance payments amounted to £390,336, as against £340,933 in 1926-1927.

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[1] Queensland. Department of Labour : *Fifth Annual Report on Operations under the Unemployed Workers' Insurance Acts, 1922-1927.* Brisbane, 1928. For summary of the fourth annual report cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVII, No. 3, March 1928, pp. 399-400.

[2] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XII, No. 11, 15 Dec. 1924 (first annual report); Vol. XVI, No. 13, 28 Dec. 1925 (second annual report); Vol. XX, No. 8, 22 Dec. 1926 (third annual report); *International Labour Review* (fourth annual report : see previous note).

Item	1923-1924	1924-1925	1925-1926	1926-1927	1927-1928
	£	£	£	£	£
Total receipts	226,081	249,107	256,977	263,524	342,682
Increase over previous year		23,025	7,870	6,547	79,158
Total disbursements	157,473	204,539	248,301	360,959	412,220
Increase over previous year		47,065	43,762	112,658	51,261
Administrative and general expenditure (i.e. disbursements other than sustenance payments)	8,364	16,528	25,073	20,025	21,883[1]
Excess of receipts over disbursements	68,608	44,568	8,676		
Excess of disbursements over receipts				97,435	69,538

[1] Includes the cost (£1,028) of conducting a special Unemployment Investigation.

As was remarked in the summary of the previous year's report given in the *International Labour Review*[1], it is not possible to relate these figures in each year to the number of workers covered by the insurance system, since the report gives no indication of the total number or industrial distribution of insured workers. A special investigation has, however, been undertaken with a view to ascertaining the total number employed on 31 December 1927, and 31 March, 30 June, and 30 September 1928, and also the number of workers fully or partly employed throughout each quarter. The results of this enquiry should throw some light on the working of the Fund during the period under consideration, though they cannot be of much use in interpreting the figures for previous years.

The report includes a table of monthly sustenance payments, which indicates that for the period during which the unemployment insurance system has been in operation, the course of unemployment has shown marked seasonal variations, the worst months being usually February, March, and April.

[1] *Loc. cit.*, p. 400.

STATISTICS

Recent Wage Changes in Various Countries[1]

United States

A large amount of wage information is available for the United States of America. Most of the data, whether published by State or Federal authorities or by employers, relate to average full-time earnings or average actual earnings. For certain occupations, chiefly in the building and printing industries, union scales of wage rates are available.

Table I gives average actual *per capita* weekly earnings in important industries. The averages have been calculated by the International Labour Office, by dividing the total amounts paid in wages by the reporting establishments by the numbers of workers employed. These figures include the effects of short time, overtime, or changes in normal hours of labour. Also, they provide a basis for comparisons over a period of several years only on the assumption that the proportions of males and females, skilled and unskilled, adults and juveniles, have remained fairly constant during the period. Making this assumption, table I shows for most industries considerable stability of earnings since the end of 1923.

The stability of earnings during the last five years shown by table I is partly confirmed by the statistics of average *full-time* weekly earnings in table II, which shows the results of enquiries conducted every two years by the Department of Labour. In almost all the occupations given, however, full-time weekly earnings were higher in 1926-1928 than in 1922. In the cotton industry, the figures for 1926-1928 were considerably lower than those for 1924. In the woollen and worsted industry, also, full-time weekly earnings were lower in 1926 and 1928 than in 1924. During the same period (1924-1926) a noteworthy decline (about 12 per cent.) is shown for tin-plate mills. Except in the cotton industry, full-time weekly earnings in 1928 in the industries for which figures are available were generally somewhat higher than in 1926.

Table III gives average full-time weekly earnings in 1927 for important occupations in industries for which no comparable data

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[1] For previous articles in this series cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVII, No. 5, May 1928 (Great Britain); No. 6, June (France, Belgium); Vol. XVIII, No. 1, July (Denmark, Norway, Sweden); No. 2, Aug. (Spain); No. 3, Sept. (Netherlands, Switzerland); Nos 4-5, Oct.-Nov. (Germany); No. 6, Dec. (Austria, Poland); Vol. XIX, No. 1, Jan. 1929 (Czechoslovakia, Hungary).

exist for a series of years. Included are the cotton ginning, cotton compressing, and cotton-seed oil industries. These are chiefly located in the Southern States, which accounts for the comparatively low level of wages in certain occupations. The great differences between the levels of earnings of coloured and white labour in these industries will be noted.

Statistics of earnings in bituminous coal mining are given in table IV. They show that the considerable decline in 1924 (a year of slight decline in business activity) as compared with 1922 was followed by a recovery, the 1926 figures in most occupations being above those for 1924. Among the occupations given in the table, underground labourers and engineers were the only groups for which the wage level remained about the same in 1926 as in 1924.

A remarkable stability of wages during the last three years in New York State is shown by the actual weekly earnings given in table V. The general average for all industries varied little, the tendency being slightly upward. Separate figures for male and female workers having been compiled for New York State in recent years, figures for the two sexes are given in table V for comparative purposes for September 1928. They show that for all industries the actual earnings of male workers were about 82 per cent. above those of females. It should be pointed out that whilst the figures for the two sexes together refer to both manual workers and office employees, the separate data for each sex cover manual workers only. This fact is probably one of the reasons why for certain industries, saw mills and planing mill products for instance, the earnings for all workers are somewhat higher than those for either male or female manual workers.

The National Industrial Conference Board, an employers' organisation, publishes at regular intervals statistics of actual earnings which are estimated to cover about one-quarter of all wage earners in the chief manufacturing industries. These are given for important industries in table VI. They show in general the same fluctuations as the official data published by the United States Department of Labour. The highest earnings are shown in the iron and steel industry, followed by agricultural implement, automobile, and rubber manufacturing, and printing, whilst the lowest earnings are shown for workers in the textile, hosiery, and boot and shoe industries. One factor determining these differences is the proportion of men to women in the industry. In the southern cotton-mill districts, where wages are particularly low, workers often receive various payments in kind, e.g. free housing accommodation. The money equivalents of these payments are not included in the figures given in the table.

Table VII summarises information for recent years concerning union scales of wages. Average scales of hourly wage rates are given for 1927 and 1928, together with index numbers for these years calculated in relation to union rates in 1913. Average union hours of labour are also given to permit of comparing the hourly rates of wages with the weekly figures given in most other tables. The union scales may be considered for many occupations as the prevailing rate for the trade, even though all persons in the trade may not be members of the union. For recent years, the statistics of union scales of wages

have been confined chiefly to printing and publishing, the building industry, and certain transportation occupations. The general movement of union rates and also the movement of union rates in the building industry as compared with 1913 are shown by the following index numbers :

Year	Index numbers of hourly rates (1913=100)	
	All trades[1]	Building trades
1922	193	187
1923	211	207
1924	228	224
1925	238	233
1926	250	248
1927	260	257
1928	261	258

[1] These index numbers cover the following trades : bakery trades, building, printing and publishing, stone trades, laundry workers, linesmen, longshoremen, and teamsters.

Both the above series of index numbers show a marked upward trend to 1927, whilst the figures for 1928 show only minor increases over the previous year.

Table VIII gives monthly and daily wage rates of farm labourers. These show only small variations during the last few years, as may be seen from the following weighted average index numbers calculated by the Bureau of Labour Statistics :

Year	Index (1910-1914=100)	Year	Index (1910-1914=100)
1922	146	1926	171
1923	166	1927	170
1924	166	1928 : Jan.	171
1925	169	Oct.	175

The foregoing statements have been limited to the consideration of money wages and their movements. In order to illustrate the general trend of real wages, table IX has been compiled. This gives index numbers of real wages calculated by comparing changes in money wages with changes in the cost of living. The cost-of-living index numbers used in the calculations are also given in the table. Three series of real wage index numbers are given based respectively on : (1) average union hourly wage rates for the United States as a whole, and the official cost-of-living index numbers also for the whole country ; (2) hourly and weekly actual earnings published by the National Industrial Conference Board for the chief manufacturing industries throughout the United States, and the official cost-of-living indexes for the whole country ; and (3) actual weekly earnings in New York City, and the cost-of-living index numbers for New York City compiled by the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics. The real wage index numbers calculated from weekly wages show lower increases over 1913-1914 levels than those based on hourly wages, owing chiefly to the reduction in hours of labour during the period covered. Otherwise the series show in general similar movements. During the last five

years they indicate a steady upward trend, due in part to a decline in the cost of living. The various indexes show also that, for broad groups of workers, real wages in recent years have been generally more than 25 per cent. higher than before the war. It has been pointed out in previous articles that in various European countries the real wages of unskilled workers and women have risen since 1914 relatively much more than those of skilled workers, since the former have experienced relatively greater increases of money wages than the latter. In the United States this situation is not shown by the National Industrial Conference Board figures.

TABLE I. AVERAGE ACTUAL WEEKLY EARNINGS IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES IN THE UNITED STATES, 1923-1928[1]

Branch of industry	1923 Dec.	1924 Dec.	1925 Dec.	1926 Dec.	1927 Dec.	1928 June	1928 Sept.
	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
Food and kindred products	25.27	25.92	25.35	25.59	25.48	26.09	25.75
Slaughtering and meat packing	25.19	26.22	25.46	26.18	26.00	25.34	26.21
Baking	25.63	25.95	26.95	26.86	26.74	27.04	26.82
Textiles and their products	20.37	20.55	19.91	19.97	20.09	19.14	19.39
Cotton goods	17.97	16.99	16.61	16.47	16.32	14.78	15.25
Hosiery and knitted goods	18.31	18.86	18.86	19.26	19.73	19.13	18.64
Silk goods	20.71	21.15	21.81	21.31	21.76	21.40	21.22
Woollen and worsted goods	24.06	25.05	21.93	23.02	22.83	22.22	21.91
Clothing, men's	24.68	25.14	23.84	23.93	23.84	23.86	23.50
Iron and steel	29.96	30.68	31.20	31.08	29.80	31.02	30.62
Foundry and machine-shop	30.71	29.39	30.35	30.18	29.37	30.45	29.64
Timber and its products	22.55	22.39	23.02	22.23	22.41	22.20	22.44
Sawmill	21.43	20.82	21.69	20.25	20.56	20.70	20.78
Furniture	23.48	24.15	25.46	24.95	24.88	23.28	25.01
Leather and its products	23.17	22.80	22.37	22.54	21.88	22.41	23.55
Boots and shoes	22.30	22.03	21.28	21.64	20.78	20.22	23.25
Paper and printing	31.06	31.72	32.52	32.82	33.21	33.01	32.98
Chemicals and allied products	28.97	28.92	29.02	29.98	29.61	29.85	28.77
Petroleum refining	32.11	31.37	31.87	32.45	32.84	33.01	32.36
Stone, clay, and glass	26.71	26.98	27.04	26.91	26.17	25.98	27.48
Tobacco products	18.92	19.29	18.51	18.01	18.10	16.99	16.85
Cigars and cigarettes	19.23	19.40	19.25	18.64	18.67	17.11	16.97
Vehicles for land transportation	31.79	30.71	32.56	29.34	31.92	31.78	31.48
Automobiles	33.14	31.16	34.08	28.73	32.86	32.44	32.53
Car building and repairing, steam railroad	29.34	30.06	29.20	30.26	30.00	30.08	28.61
Miscellaneous:							
Electrical machinery, etc.	29.09	28.64	29.26	29.51	29.01	30.20	28.92
Automobile tyres	29.62	30.51	29.93	30.42	30.80	31.66	32.56
All industries	—	26.26	—	26.54	26.60	27.01	26.87

[1] Calculated from data published in the *Monthly Labour Review*, 1924-1928.

TABLE II. AVERAGE FULL-TIME WEEKLY EARNINGS IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1913, 1922, 1924, 1926 and 1928[1]

Industry and occupation	1913	1922	1924	1926	1928
	$	$	$	$	$
Iron and steel industry	18.99	31.67	35.22	34.41	—
Bar mills	—	29.74	32.53	32.33	—
Stokers	12.89	24.90	28.20	28.62	—
Heaters	34.74	45.50	53.03	52.28	—
Rollers	58.85	82.35	85.28	90.44	—
Roughers	26.00	40.41	44.61	45.01	—
Labourers	10.66	21.54	23.06	22.61	—
Blast furnaces	15.76	28.78	31.04	30.92	—
Stokers	15.00	26.06	28.10	27.95	—
Labourers	12.43	21.69	25.15	24.34	—
Bessemer converters	19.88	32.29	32.64	33.72	—
Stokers	19.05	28.71	29.59	31.01	—
Labourers	14.38	25.64	25.87	26.31	—
Open-hearth furnaces	18.18	33.98	36.83	38.66	—
Stokers	15.30	28.07	31.37	30.92	—
Melters' helpers (first)	33.89	55.34	59.16	64.70	—
Labourers	14.24	24.22	25.73	25.40	—
Tin-plate mills	19.22	32.44	38.80	33.86	—
Rollers	43.73	72.56	89.36	69.81	—
Roughers	22.73	38.08	49.11	38.52	—
Catchers	19.74	34.83	42.83	34.42	—
Woollen and worsted industry	11.02	23.13	26.17	24.21	25.34
Male workers	—	—	28.44	26.87	28.06
Frame spinners	7.33	17.14	21.05	17.81	—
Weavers	13.06	29.75	34.21	31.88	32.18
Miscellaneous occupations	10.03	22.57	25.09	23.71	24.80
Female workers	—	—	22.84	20.61	21.55
Frame spinners	7.78	16.70	20.39	18.03	19.04
Weavers	11.03	27.85	31.98	29.52	29.52
Miscellaneous occupations	7.54	16.43	18.76	17.09	17.47
Hosiery and underwear industry :					
Female workers					
Inspectors and folders	8.03	15.25	16.31	15.36	—
Knitters, footers, toppers (hosiery)	8.33	14.86	17.48	15.65	—
Loopers	8.37	16.61	19.51	19.44	—
Menders	7.97	15.87	18.57	19.76	—
Seamers	9.57	16.35	18.71	18.77	—
Cotton industry	9.12	17.42	19.72	17.48	17.30
Male workers	—	—	20.87	18.67	18.60
Loom fixers	12.96	26.45	29.25	26.16	25.88
Weavers	9.73	20.44	23.71	21.07	20.93
Miscellaneous occupations	8.59	15.58	18.63	16.57	16.22
Female workers	—	—	18.15	15.89	15.66
Frame spinners	7.33	15.83	16.94	15.09	14.60
Weavers	9.30	19.59	22.22	19.46	19.37
Boot and shoe industry	17.08	24.45	25.28	25.87	26.02
Male workers	—	—	29.44	30.48	30.63
Hand cutters	19.05	38.11	40.56	39.51	40.05
Machine cutters	17.77	31.99	34.28	32.51	32.58
Lasting machine operators	19.72	36.38	33.66	34.23	40.40
Heel trimmers	24.74	38.04	38.94	36.27	35.30
Female workers	—	—	19.31	19.65	19.53
Lining makers	10.38	17.71	18.19	20.36	19.58
Top stitchers	11.47	21.16	22.77	23.96	22.28

[1] *Monthly Labour Review*, 1923-1928.

TABLE III. AVERAGE FULL-TIME WEEKLY EARNINGS IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1927 [1]

Industry and occupation	Weekly earnings	Industry and occupation	Weekly earnings
	$		$
Foundries :		Cotton gins :	
Chippers and rough grinders (males)	27.44	Ginners (white)	26.16
Moulders, hand, floor (males)	40.92	,, (coloured)	18.05
,, machine (males)	37.90	Balers (white)	19.40
Labourers (males)	25.63	,, (coloured)	14.49
All occupations (males)	31.99	Cotton compresses :	
,, ,, (females)	22.64	Males (white)	24.86
Machine shops :		,, (coloured)	16.44
Assemblers (males)	32.72	,, (Mexican)	17.37
Bench hands and fitters (males)	32.77	Females (coloured)	7.38
Labourers (males)	22.98	Cotton-seed oil mills :	
All occupations (males)	31.51	Seed handlers (coloured)	13.73
,, ,, (females)	19.71	Truckers and labourers (white)	16.56
Slaughtering and meat packing :		,, ,, ,, (coloured)	14.26
Cured meat department (males)	23.51	All occupations (white)	23.82
,, ,, ,, (females)	16.95	,, ,, (coloured)	15.89
All departments (males)	25.45	,, ,, (Mexican)	15.62
,, ,, (females)	17.87	Radio manufacturing :	
Brass and copper mills :		Receiving sets :	
Draw bench operators (males)	28.68	Males	28.62
Labourers (males)	25.93	Females	18.55
All occupations (males)	29.91	Radio speakers :	
,, ,, (females)	19.04	Males	26.86
		Females	18.67
		Radio tubes :	
		Males	29.44
		Females	19.74

[1] *Monthly Labour Review*, 1928. The figures given for "all occupations" cover other occupations in addition those mentioned in the table.

TABLE IV. AVERAGE EARNINGS PER HALF-MONTH PAYROLL PERIOD OF VARIOUS CATEGORIES OF WORKERS IN BITUMINOUS COAL MINES, 1922-1926[1]

Occupation	1922	1924	1926
	$	$	$
Underground workers :			
Miners, hand or pick	59.62	53.02	60.31
Miners, machine	96.14	84.79	102.68
Loaders, hand	59.75	51.29	57.48
Brakemen	60.18	53.25	57.61
Motormen	68.62	62.89	67.97
Trackmen	72.05	59.83	64.15
Labourers	56.30	48.74	48.82
Surface workers :			
Engineers	99.50	91.56	91.17
Labourers	55.06	46.73	50.53
All surface workers	66.17	57.81	60.87

[1] *Hours and Earnings in Bituminous Coal Mining* (Bulletin No. 454 of the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics).

TABLE V. AVERAGE ACTUAL WEEKLY EARNINGS IN REPRESENTATIVE NEW YORK STATE FACTORIES, 1914 AND 1922-1927[1]

Industry	1914 July	1922 Dec.	1923 Dec.	1924 Dec.	1925 Dec.	1926 Dec.	1927 Dec.	Sept. 1928		
								All workers[2]	Men[3]	Women[3]
	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
Stone, clay, and glass products	13.04	26.58	29.82	28.99	30.37	30.57	29.97	30.76	33.69	17.67
Brick, tile, and pottery	11.28	23.90	26.38	24.69	25.90	26.47	25.32	26.25	27.45	—[4]
Metals, machinery, and conveyances	14.26	28.89	30.94	30.67	31.59	31.55	31.86	32.09	33.01	17.79
Pig iron and rolling-mill products	16.20	30.61	34.08	33.93	34.67	33.61	33.63	35.45	36.28	20.12
Boat and shipbuilding	16.69	32.05	31.69	34.71	33.42	41.60	41.42	33.82	33.35	—[4]
Wood manufacturers	12.03	26.24	28.52	28.67	30.20	30.36	30.00	29.53	30.67	15.99
Saw-mill and planing-mill products	13.03	25.71	28.83	28.56	29.09	31.42	30.69	31.40	30.91	15.76
Furs, leather and rubber goods	11.66	25.01	25.33	25.96	26.11	27.16	26.16	27.83	33.17	19.60
Boots and shoes	12.20	25.28	24.82	25.55	24.87	25.87	24.75	26.85	32.88	20.36
Chemical, oils, paints, etc.	13.17	26.51	28.33	29.89	29.50	30.33	30.74	30.21	32.30	17.69
Paper	13.41	26.47	28.58	28.71	29.18	29.07	29.93	28.49	28.18	14.72
Printing and paper goods	15.59	31.97	33.17	34.13	35.75	36.38	36.72	36.98	42.87	18.42
Textiles	9.40	21.33	22.11	22.42	22.30	23.21	23.18	22.72	25.83	15.99
Wool manufactures	9.97	25.15	24.13	25.61	25.05	26.93	26.82	25.00	25.68	17.38
Cotton goods	9.26	21.01	21.55	21.41	20.66	21.75	20.34	21.30	21.95	15.77
Clothing, millinery, laundering, etc.	10.55	23.17	23.69	24.88	25.38	25.67	26.20	26.67	39.86	20.79
Food, beverages and tobacco	11.50	23.25	25.15	25.42	26.60	26.97	26.99	26.65	31.40	15.47
Meat and dairy products	14.52	28.45	31.08	30.94	30.29	30.17	30.48	30.03	30.81	14.71
Bread and other bakery products	11.22	22.78	24.16	25.23	26.55	26.89	25.73	26.68	31.19	18.23
Water, light, and power	15.48	32.87	34.28	34.35	34.83	35.43	35.84	34.92	35.23	—[4]
General average	12.54	26.39	27.99	28.25	29.05	29.47	29.57	29.72	34.08	18.73

[1] *Labour Market Bulletin*, 1921; also *Industrial Bulletin*, 1922-1928.

[2] These figures, as well as those for previous years, include all employees in both office and shop; they are computed by dividing the total payroll by the number of workers on the payroll.

[3] Shop workers only; office employees are not included.

[4] Not computed because the number of firms is too small.

TABLE VI. AVERAGE ACTUAL WEEKLY EARNINGS IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES IN THE UNITED STATES, 1914 and 1922-1928[1]

Industry and group of workers	1914 July	1922 Dec.	1923 Dec.	1924 4th quart.	1925 4th quart.	1926 4th quart.	1927 4th quart.	1928 Sept.
	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
Foundry and machine-shop products :								
All wage earners	13.61	26.65	28.73	28.22	29.09	28.97	27.90	28.99
Skilled (male)	14.85	29.02	31.42	30.73	31.67	31.35	30.33	31.37
Unskilled (male)	10.89	22.54	23.53	23.33	24.64	24.47	23.89	25.14
Agricultural implement manufacturing :								
All wage earners	13.78	24.56	28.28	27.81	30.53	29.53	30.85	30.90
Skilled (male)	14.60	26.49	30.42	30.12	32.93	31.47	32.85	32.68
Unskilled (male)	12.04	20.21	23.43	23.41	24.71	24.39	25.61	25.28
Iron and steel manufacturing :								
All wage earners	14.96	31.36	36.75	33.43	34.76	35.18	33.32	35.53
Skilled (male)	19.20	34.19	41.04	36.44	37.24	36.35	35.26	38.58
Unskilled (male)	11.20	24.79	26.13	26.52	27.77	26.98	27.20	28.28
Cotton manufacturing (North) :								
All wage earners	9.16	19.60	21.76	20.18	19.71	19.73	20.30	19.82
Skilled (male)	10.69	22.97	25.76	23.52	23.27	23.56	24.08	23.66
Unskilled (male)	8.89	19.16	21.48	19.50	20.24	19.51	19.96	20.04
Women	7.74	16.57	17.86	16.80	15.87	16.02	16.30	15.34
Cotton manufacturing (South) :								
All wage earners	6.58	17.03	17.05	15.85	15.60	15.57	16.25	12.78
Skilled (male)	7.79	21.54	20.37	19.28	18.78	18.18	18.87	14.59
Unskilled (male)	4.83	13.38	13.89	12.44	12.86	12.86	13.16	10.77
Women	5.59	13.80	14.40	13.24	13.24	13.35	14.09	11.25
Wool manufacturing :								
All wage earners	9.63	22.80	23.36	23.62	21.56	22.58	22.35	21.70
Skilled (male)	11.29	26.45	27.81	27.73	25.37	26.28	26.13	25.65
Unskilled (male)	9.36	22.02	22.99	23.22	21.06	21.76	21.16	20.69
Women	8.19	19.89	19.85	20.22	18.48	19.54	19.02	17.89
Miscellaneous (all wage earners) :								
Automobile manufacturing	15.09	28.85	30.24	29.96	31.92	29.90	29.58	34.74
Electrical apparatus manufacturing	13.52	24.55	27.67	26.75	28.22	26.78	27.27	28.58
Silk manufacturing	9.94	20.85	23.93	21.81	22.56	22.59	23.17	23.16
Hosiery and knit goods manufacturing	9.04	16.92	17.91	17.77	19.21	20.42	22.09	21.53
Rubber manufacturing	12.28	26.89	27.53	28.49	28.35	29.37	28.97	30.73
Leather tanning and finishing	10.88	21.93	24.04	23.79	24.46	24.26	25.13	24.85
Boot and shoe manufacturing	11.34	23.20	20.86	21.71	20.90	22.36	21.81	22.92
Meat packing	12.01	22.03	24.67	26.30	25.88	25.62	25.59	26.74
Chemicals	12.88	24.84	27.81	27.93	28.75	28.35	28.15	28.71
Paint and varnish manufacturing	15.19	25.37	26.98	27.74	27.87	27.65	28.90	29.13
Paper and wood pulp	12.56	24.69	26.07	26.94	27.65	27.85	27.63	27.00
Printing (book and job)	14.12	30.50	30.71	31.77	32.84	32.56	32.19	30.80
Lumber manufacturing and mill work	11.89	22.56	24.43	23.29	23.36	25.80	26.38	27.62
Furniture manufacturing	11.57	24.39	24.72	25.90	26.41	27.05	26.18	25.84
General average[2] :								
All wage earners	12.54	25.12	26.94	26.65	27.27	27.29	26.89	27.76
Skilled (male)	14.16	28.40	30.33	30.30	31.30	30.95	30.60	32.42
Unskilled (male)	10.71	21.21	22.88	23.13	23.86	23.92	24.03	25.27
Women	7.84	16.70	17.25	16.75	17.14	17.45	17.39	17.33

[1] NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD : *Wages in the United States*, 1914-1927 ; and *The Service Letter on Industrial Relations*, 1928.

[2] Including other industries, in addition to those mentioned in the table.

TABLE VII. AVERAGE UNION SCALES OF HOURLY WAGE RATES, WITH INDEX NUMBERS AND AVERAGE HOURS OF WORK PER WEEK IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1927 AND 1928[1]

Industry and occupation	Wage rates				Average hours per week, May 1928
	Per hour		In 'ex numbers (1913 = 100)		
	1927 May	1928 May	1927 May	1928 May	
	$	$			
Bakery trades :					
Bakers	0.96	0.95	287	286	47.4
Building trades :					
Bricklayers	1.60	1.62	232	234	43.8
Carpenters	1.31	1.32	247	248	43.7
Painters	1.35	1.37	265	271	41.5
Plasterers	1.63	1.63	241	241	41.8
Plumbers and gasfitters	1.41	1.44	227	232	43.9
Building labourers	0.85	0.86	256	257	44.7
General average buildings	1.32	1.33	257	258	43.5
Printing and publishing :					
Book and job :					
Bookbinders	1.00	0.99	246	245	44.9
Compositors	1.11	1.12	247	250	44.0
Machine operators	1.16	1.17	223	225	43.9
Press assistants and feeders	0.84	0.84	287	287	44.3
Newspaper :					
Compositors :					
Day work	1.15	1.18	202	207	45.7
Night work	1.29	1.31	200	203	45.1
Machine operators (time work) :					
Day work	1.18	1.20	209	214	45.1
Night work	1.27	1.33	197	206	44.8
Granite and stone trades :					
Granite cutters	1.24	1.26	243	245	44.0
Stone cutters	1.40	1.41	241	242	44.0
Miscellaneous :					
Chauffeurs	0.70	0.71	242	243	54.4
Teamsters and drivers	0.71	0.73	269	277	55.7
Motormen and conductors	0.68	0.69	—	—	—
Bus drivers	0.70	0.67	—	—	—
Laundry workers	0.43	0.45	—	—	48.0
Linemen	0.99	1.01	—	—	45.7
Longshoremen	0.82	0.86	—	—	44.6
General average[2]	1.19	1.20	260	261	44.9

[1] *Monthly Labour Review*, 1928.
[2] Excluding motormen, conductors, and bus drivers.

TABLE VIII. AVERAGE WAGE RATES OF FARM LABOURERS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1914 AND 1922-1928[1]

Period and conditions	1914	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	
								Jan.	Oct.
	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
Monthly rates (with board)	20.90	29.31	33.09	33.34	34.94	34.86	34.58	32.50	35.7
,, ,, (without board)	29.72	42.09	46.74	47.22	48.55	48.86	48.63	46.75	49.8
Daily rates (with board)	1.11	1.64	1.91	1.88	1.89	1.91	1.90	1.76	1.9
,, ,, (without board)	1.43	2.14	2.45	2.44	2.40	2.49	2.46	2.34	2.6

[1] *Monthly Labour Review*, 1927 and 1928.

TABLE IX. REAL WAGE AND COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1922-1928[1]

(Base: 1914 = 100)

Date	Real wage index numbers							Cost-of-living index numbers	
	United States, Bureau of Labour Statistics: union scales of hourly rates[2]	United States, National Industrial Conference Board					New York City Industrial Commission, actual weekly earnings (all workers)	United States	New York City
		Hourly earnings (all workers)	Actual weekly earnings						
			All workers	Males		Women			
				Skilled	Unskilled				
1922	117	120	112	115	114	122	119	161	171
1923	125	136	131	132	131	139	126	165	173
1924	137	139	123	125	126	124	127	164	173
1925	138	135	125	128	128	128	128	169	176
1926	145	135	127	131	132	128	130	170	179
1927	154	140	131	134	138	134	131	166	178
1928	155	141	132	136	142	132	139	165	174

[1] The figures refer to June of each year. The index numbers of real wages have been calculated by dividing index numbers of nominal wages by the corresponding index numbers of the cost of living compiled by the Bureau of Labour Statistics.

The expression "all workers" refers to workers in those establishments which supply information for the industries covered in the United States or New York City and not to all the workers in the United States or in New York City respectively; this applies also to National Industrial Conference Board figures for skilled and unskilled males and women workers.

[2] These data cover mainly the building and printing trades.

Employment and Unemployment

Table I giving unemployment statistics shows for certain countries the percentage of workers unemployed. In some cases these percentages are based on data compiled by the trade unions in respect of their members, while in other cases they refer to the workers covered by unemployment insurance laws. For some countries for which no such data are available information is given as to the numbers registered at various dates at the employment exchanges as unemployed or the number of unemployed workers who have received assistance. Table II gives index numbers of employment for certain countries.

In the *Review* for July 1924 and later months an outline was given of the methods by which the statistics given in the tables are compiled, together with particulars of the original sources in which they are published.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany					Australia		Belgium			
	Trade unionists					Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies			
	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed		Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.				Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1928 Feb.	431,765	10.4	151,646	3.6	1,237,504	*	*	7,480	1.2	24,932	4 0
March	388,224	9.2	155,797	3.7	1,121,150	45,638	10.7	5,294	0.8	17,108	2.7
April	295,135	6.9	180,712	4.2	729,329	*	*	4.922	0.8	17,769	2.8
May	270,103	6.3	215,759	5.0	629,470	*	*	4,052	0.7	22,574	3.6
June	268,443	6.2	255,090	5.9	610,687	46,656	11.2	3,709	0 6	19,115	3.0
July	273,696	6.3	283,562	6.5	564,064	*	*	4,471	0.7	23.768	3 8
Aug.	288,375	6.5	312,051	7.1	574,475	*	*	3,397	0 5	23 888	3.8
Sept.	293,691	6.6	303,466	6.9	577,093	47,745	11.4	3,464	0.6	20.561	3.3
Oct.	325,293	7.3	303,737	6.8	670,997	*	*	3,954	0.6	22,458	3.5
Nov.	427,516	9.5	339,461	7.6	1,029,658	*	*	3.497[1]	0.6[1]	13,832[1]	2.2[1]
Number on which latest percentages are based	4,495,496				*	419,899		626,876			

Date (end of month)	Austria	Canada		Denmark		Estonia	Finland	France
	Compulsory insurance	Trade unionists		Trade union unemployment funds		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number of unemployed registered	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit
	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.			
1928 Feb.	223,964	12,522[1]	7.0	71,200[1]	25.9	4,113	2,535	14,408
March	193,449	11,965	6.5	61,600[1]	21.3	3,134	2,139	10,473
April	154,817	9,573	5.2	42,243[1]	16.6	2,162	1,482	7,273
May	130,393	6,657	3.7	39,117[1]	14.0	1,470	868	3,746
June	118,737	5,800	3.2	37,503[1]	13.5	883	811	1,659
July	115,211	4,500[1]	2.5	37,037[1]	13.6	486	762	1.095
Aug.	113,851	4,274	2.4	35.600[1]	13.1	467	857	1,010
Sept.	112 595	4,068	2.2	33.100[1]	12 2	706	946	562
Oct.	122,557	5,705	3.1	40.100[1]	14.8	1,561	1,600	453
Nov.	155,235	—	—	47,700[1]	17,6	4,369	3,045	503
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	184,580		270,992		*	*	*

[1] Approximate figures.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Great Britain and Northern Ireland				Hungary			Irish Free State		Italy	
	Compulsory insurance				Trade unionists			Compulsory insurance		Number of unemployed registered	
	Wholly unemployed		Temporary stoppages		Christian	Social-Democratic					
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unempl.	Partially unempl.
1928 Feb.	967,595	8.2	259,909	2.2	1,029	16,215	10.8	31,949	13.0	413,383	58,109
March	903,805	7.7	223,817	1.9	1,054	15,194	10.0	•	•	411,785	47,036
April	898,019	7.6	222,729	2.0	1,016	14,027	9.3	•	•	356,795	45,833
May	893,304	7.6	274,705	2.3	955	13,275	8.7	26,449	10.8	306,629	45,569
June	917,726	7.8	355,634	3.0	1,001	12,860	8.5	•	•	247,021	30,296
July	958,567	8.1	418,464	3.6	875	12 242	8.1	•	•	234.210	27.590
Aug.	979.926	8.3	395,293	3.4	832	12.523	8.3	22,843	9.3	248,100	24,319
Sept.	1,019,179	8.6	335,832	2 9	818	12,134	8.0	•	•	268,883	28,746
Oct.	1.059.429	8.9	344.482	2.9	1,003	12,212	8.1	•	•	282,379	25.489
Nov.	1,105,974	9.3	347,243	2.9	—	—	—	27,724	9.9	321,123	24,814
Number on which latest percentages are based	11,881,500				•	151,100[1]		280,905		•	

Date (end of month)	Latvia	Norway			New Zealand		Netherlands	
	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists (10 unions)		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies	
		Number unemployed	Per cent.		Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1928 Feb.	6,461	8,642	25.9	28,290	6,605	11.4	27,505	9.0
March	5,570	8,130	24.4	26,692	•	•	19,740	6.3
April	2,950	7,654	28.8	24,719	•	•	15,620	5.0
May	1,295	—	18.0	19,871	6,478	11.5	14,083	4.4
June	1,223	4,925	14.4	16,747	•	•	14,302	4.4
July	928	4,674	13.6	15,365	•	•	17.100	5.3
Aug.	965	4,834	13.9	15,817	6,298	11.3	16,670	5.2
Sept.	1,914	—	—	17,859	•	•	15.697	4.7
Oct.	5,179	—	—	—	•	•	15,038	5.1
Nov.	9,184	—	—	—	—	—	18,579	6.2
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	34,863		•	55,676		300,696	

Date (end of month)	Poland	Russia	Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom	Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia	
	Number unemployed registered	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number unemployed registered	Trade unionists		Unemployment funds		Trade union insurance funds	
				Number unemployed	Per cent.	Per cent. unemployed		Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Per cent.
						Wholly	Partially		
1928									
Feb.	179,644	1,482,800	18,968	35,183	13.2	•	•	20.131	1.8
March	167,676	1,576,400	7,582	36,722	13.3	1.9	1.0	17,734	1.6
April	153,016	1,598,700	9,123	32,218	11.7	•	•	16.683	1.4
May	135,542	1,571,060	6,820	22,978	8.2	•	•	16,556	1.4
June	116,247	1,471,320	5,696	21,257	7.6	1.2	0.8	13,408	1.2
July	100,487	1,339,810	—	20,238	7.4	•	•	13,627	1.2
Aug.	90,976	1,344,000	—	19,826	7.1	•	•	15,588	1.4
Sept.	82,642	—	—	22,159	7.6	1.1	1.0	16.304	1.5
Oct.	79.478	—	—	27,008	9.1	•	•	13,228	1.1
Nov.	92,365	—	—	32,229	10.8	•	•	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	•	•	298,246		262,538		1,308,249[1]	

[1] Approximate figures.

The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany[1]	Canada[1]	Estonia[1]	United States	Switzerland
	Index number of employment				
	Membership of sickness funds on 1 Jan. 1925=100	Number employed on 17 Jan. 1920=100	Number employed on 1 Jan. 1927=100	Average number employed in 1923=100	Number employed in March 1925=100
1928 Feb.	104.2	101.4	108.9	85.5	•
March	105.3	101.1	110.0	86.1	106.7
April	109.5	105.5	111.7	85.7	•
May	111.8	112.4	119.1	85.5	•
June	112.3	116.3	118.7	85 6	110.1
July	112.4	119.9	120.4	84 7	•
Aug.	112.4	119.5	116.9	86.0	•
Sept.	112.1	118.9	112.1	87.3	—
Oct.	111.3	119.1	111.8	88.1	•
Nov.	—	—	110.3	87.7	•
Number of persons on which latest figures are based	•	1,000,063	39,131	4,168,820	220,819

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month.
The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Index Numbers of the Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Tables I to V give for a number of countries index numbers of the cost of living, food, clothing, heating and lighting, and rent. Notes on the sources and methods of compilation of the statistics were given in the *Review* for July 1924 and later months.

Great Britain: *The Ministry of Labour Gazette.*

The rent index numbers for Great Britain are now based on decontrolled as well as on controlled rents. Those for previous dates are based on controlled rents only. The controlled rent index for November is 150 and the uncontrolled rent index is given as between 185 and 190.

TABLE I. COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria	Belgium [1]	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile [2]	Denmark	Danzig	Egypt	Estonia [2]
Towns and localities	9	72	6	Vienna	59	12	60	Chile	100	Danzig	Cairo	Tallinn
1927 Nov.	132	151	*	108	207	2660	156	183	*	140	152	105
Dec.	132	151	147	107	207	2692	157	—	*	140	153	105
1928 Jan.	132	151	*	107	209	2735	157	—	176	140	152	108
Feb.	131	151	*	107	206	2777	156	—	*	139	151	109
March	132	151	146	107	203	2791	156	—	*	140	151	111
April	133	151	*	107	204	2841	155	—	176	141	151	113
May	133	151	*	107	202	2857	155	—	*	139	149	113
June	132	151	—	109	204	2818	155	—	*	140	149	112
July	131	153	*	108	205	2861	155	—	176	140	151	116
Aug.	131	154	*	108	206	2742	157	—	*	141	153	114
Sept.	131	152	—	109	209	2757	157	—	*	141	153	112
Oct.	131	152	*	109	212	—	157	—	172	140	155	112
Nov.	131	152	*	109	216	—	157	—	*	140	155	113

Country	United States [2]	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [2]	India	Dutch Indies [3]	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania [2]
Towns and localities	32	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay		105	Milan	Riga	84
1927 Nov.	*	1251	*	169	1964	112	151	155	*	536	102	139
Dec.	172	1243	498	168	1978	113	154	155	*	531	105	138
1928 Jan.	*	1216	*	166	155 [3]	112	148	151	177	531	102	136
Feb.	*	1206	*	164	154	112	145	148	*	533	105	136
March	*	1214	507	164	153	114	144	148	*	531	105	135
April	*	1212	*	164	153	114	147	146	170	531	106	134
May	*	1207	*	165	153	117	146	145	*	526	107	136
June	170	1219	519	165	152	118	147	144	*	530	109	136
July	*	1236	*	165	148	118	146	145	173	526	113	139
Aug.	*	1258	*	165	146	120	145	147	*	522	120	144
Sept.	*	1249	519	166	145	121	146	150	*	526	113	137
Oct.	*	1254	*	167	148	119	146	150	176	528	114	136
Nov.	*	1262	*	168	148	118	147	—	*	534	114	136

Country	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands [4]	Peru [2]	Poland	Rumania	Russia [2]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Luxemburg	31	4	Amsterdam	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country	229	49	33	Prague
1927 Nov.	802	195	161	*	177	122	3900	205	*	162	729
Dec.	804	195	*	170	176	121	3973	205	171	162	734
1928 Jan.	800	194	*	*	178	120	4090	205	*	161	734
Feb.	797	194	161	*	177	118	4120	203	*	161	732
March	795	193	*	169	176	119	4061	203	171	160	730
April	794	193	*	*	176	121	4085	206	*	160	734
May	794	193	162	*	176	121	4090	206	*	160	736
June	805	193	*	170	177	122	4099	210	173	161	734
July	813	193	*	*	175	123	4086	209	*	161	746
Aug.	821	192	161	*	175	122	4100	207	*	161	754
Sept.	831	185	*	169	175	122	4135	209	172	161	749
Oct.	836	184	*	*	169	123	4206	—	*	162	726
Nov.	844	184	—	*	163	125	4230	—	*	162	721

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1913 = 100. [3] New series, in gold. [4] 1911-1913 = 100

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria	Belgium [1]	Bulgaria	Canada	Denmark	Egypt	Spain	Estonia [2]
Towns and localities	9	72	30	Vienna	59	12	60	100	Cairo	Madrid	Tallinn
1927 Nov.	119	152	*	119	211	2654	151	*	148	188	108
Dec.	119	153	156	118	211	2686	152	*	147	186	109
1928 Jan.	119	152	153	118	210	2734	152	152	143	178	113
Feb.	118	151	152	117	207	2778	150	*	142	175	114
March	118	151	153	116	201	2790	149	*	139	176	117
April	119	151	154	117	202	2851	148	152	140	174	121
May	120	151	154	117	199	2869	147	*	139	171	121
June	118	152	154	122	203	2830	146	*	140	172	120
July	116	154	152	119	204	2878	147	153	144	173	127
Aug.	115	156	150	120	206	2747	151	*	143	174	124
Sept.	115	153	150	120	208	2760	152	*	148	178	119
Oct.	115	152	—	120	213	—	154	146	154	179	120
Nov.	115	152	—	120	217	—	154	*	—	181	121

Country	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [2]	India	Dutch Indies [3]	Irish Free State	Italy
Towns and localities	51	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay		105	Milan
1927 Nov.	153	1175	500	163	2086	122	149	153	*	510
Dec.	152	1171	528	162	2101	123	151	153	*	513
1928 Jan.	151	1126	530	159	146[3]	122	146	152	1/5	514
Feb.	148	1112	522	155	144	121	142	151	*	518
March	148	1123	524	155	143	124	140	150	*	516
April	149	1119	532	154	144	126	144	146	162	516
May	150	1113	546	156	145	130	142	145	*	513
June	149	1126	557	157	144	132	143	145	*	520
July	149	1155	547	156	138	131	142	146	166	513
Aug.	151	1191	540	156	134	133	141	147	*	506
Sept.	154	1174	544	157	132	133	142	148	*	513
Oct.	153	1183	566	159	138	129	142	148	171	515
Nov.	154	1194	585	160	137	127	144	—	*	526

Country	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Peru	Poland	Russia	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Riga	81	4	Lima	Warsaw	229	49	33	Prague
1927 Nov.	139	171	144	151	149	208	155	161	836
Dec.	142	171	146	149	147	209	152	160	844
1928 Jan.	143	170	146	153	143	208	152	159	845
Feb.	144	170	145	151	138	206	151	158	842
March	138	171	145	152	140	205	152	157	838
April	139	171	144	152	142	210	153	156	844
May	139	172	147	154	142	211	154	156	847
June	144	171	147	155	143	218	156	156	843
July	147	173	146	152	144	217	156	157	858
Aug.	151	170	146	151	143	210	156	156	871
Sept.	155	164	147	151	142	215	154	157	861
Oct.	155	163	149	142	144	—	152	158	821
Nov.	—	161	—	142	148	—	152	158	813

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1913 = 100. [3] New series, in gold.

The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received "

TABLES III TO V. INDEX NUMBERS OF CLOTHING, HEATING AND LIGHTING, AND RENT

Country	Germany	Austria	Belgium[1]	Canada[2]	Denmark	Spain	Estonia[2]	United States[2]	Finland	France	Great Britain	Hungary[2]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Norway	New Zealand	Poland	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	72	Vienna	59	60	100	Madrid	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	31	4	Warsaw	49	33	Prague
TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1927 Nov.	164	185	232	155	*	*	149	*	1038	*	215	129	154	*	596	*	147	169	*	162	1013
Dec.	166	185	234	155	*	*	149	163	1038	581	215	129	152	*	591	172	*	169	182	162	1013
1928 Jan.	167	185	236	155	196	*	150	*	1039	*	215	135	153	196	591	*	*	169	*	162	1013
Feb.	168	185	237	155	*	*	150	*	1040	*	215	135	151	*	591	*	145	169	*	162	1013
March	169	183	240	155	*	*	150	*	1043	581	218	135	153	*	591	169	*	169	184	162	1020
April	170	183	241	157	198	*	150	*	1043	*	220	135	155	200	591	*	*	169	*	166	1020
May	170	183	240	157	*	*	150	*	1044	*	220	134	156	*	566	*	146	169	*	166	1020
June	170	183	242	157	*	*	150	163	1048	581	220	134	158	*	559	169	*	169	185	166	1033
July	171	183	244	157	198	*	150	*	1048	*	220	134	159	206	561	*	*	169	*	166	1040
Aug.	171	183	243	157	*	*	150	*	1049	*	220	134	157	*	561	*	145	169	*	166	1040
Sept.	171	183	246	157	*	*	150	*	1052	591	220	134	156	*	561	—	*	169	186	166	1032
Oct.	171	183	247	157	198	*	150	*	1052	*	220	134	156	206	555	*	*	169	*	169	1026
Nov.	172	183	248	157	*	*	150	*	1054	*	220	—	158	*	558	*	—	169	*	169	1023
TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1927 Nov.	146	100	181	158	*	176	77	*	1439	*	170	129	156	*	522	*	179	112	168	140	819
Dec.	146	100	177	158	*	173	80	183	1449	555	170	128	156	*	422	170	*	113	168	141	819
1928 Jan.	146	100	176	159	190	169	82	*	1440	*	170	124	144	172	420	*	*	113	168	139	819
Feb.	146	100	170	159	*	169	82	*	1430	*	170	122	144	*	409	*	179	114	166	139	819
March	146	100	168	159	*	169	83	*	1438	547	170	122	145	*	407	167	*	115	166	139	819
April	145	99	168	159	190	171	81	*	1436	*	168	119	145	172	407	*	*	116	166	138	819
May	144	99	168	158	*	171	81	*	1434	*	170	119	158	*	407	*	179	120	165	137	819
June	144	99	170	158	*	171	81	177	1436	504	168	119	158	*	407	162	*	124	164	136	819
July	144	99	168	157	185	171	81	*	1424	*	165	122	158	168	407	*	*	121	—	136	819
Aug.	145	99	169	157	*	171	84	*	1421	*	165	121	151	*	407	*	179	121	—	135	819
Sept.	147	99	170	157	*	173	84	*	1429	510	168	127	144	*	407	—	*	123	162	135	842
Oct.	149	99	172	157	183	173	85	*	1426	*	170	129	144	173	407	*	*	130	160	136	842
Nov.	151	99	174	157	*	173	84	*	1441	*	170	—	143	*	408	*	—	135	159	136	842
TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1927 Nov.	125	13	184	156	*	*	52	*	1411	*	151	75	172	*	400	*	189	49	*	174	261
Dec.	125	13	184	156	*	*	52	160	1411	275	151	75	172	*	400	181	*	53	198	174	261
1928 Jan.	126	14	208	156	189	*	52	*	1411	*	151	75	172	127	400	*	*	53	*	174	261
Feb.	126	14	209	156	*	*	52	*	1411	*	151	75	172	*	400	*	188	53	*	174	261
March	126	14	209	156	*	*	52	*	1411	275	151	75	172	*	400	179	*	53	199	174	261
April	126	14	209	156	193	*	52	*	1411	*	151	75	172	127	400	*	*	56	*	174	261
May	126	14	209	156	*	*	52	*	1411	*	151	80	172	*	400	*	189	56	*	177	261
June	126	14	209	156	*	*	52	158	1430	275	151	80	172	*	400	179	*	56	199	177	261
July	126	14	210	156	193	*	52	*	1430	*	151	80	172	128	401	*	*	58	*	177	278
Aug.	126	14	210	156	*	*	52	*	1430	*	151	85	172	*	401	*	190	58	*	177	278
Sept.	126	14	210	156	*	*	52	*	1480	200	151	85	172	*	401	—	—	58	199	177	278
Oct.	126	14	211	156	193	*	52	*	1480	*	150	85	172	127	408	*	*	58	*	177	278
Nov.	126	15	212	156	*	*	52	*	1480	*	152	—	172	*	408	*	*	58	*	177	278

Wage Rates and Retail Food Price in Various Cities

The two tables showing wage rates and retail food prices in various cities, which have hitherto been published in the *Review* every month, will in future be given only at quarterly intervals. The monthly publication of these figures has in fact lost much of its former interest now that the stabilisation of the currency, in most of the countries considered, has led to a relative stability of wages and prices. In consequence, the tables in question will in future be published only every three months, in the numbers for January, April, July, and October, i.e. together with the international comparisons of real wages for which they form a basis. It may be added that the International Labour Office is taking steps to increase the number of towns and occupations included in these comparisons of real wages.

Migration

Owing to administrative and financial reasons arising partly from the necessity of extending the programme of publications of the International Labour Office in other directions, it has been decided to discontinue the issue of the Monthly Record of Migration *as a separate periodical after December 1928.*

Under the present heading the Review *will publish every three months (February, May, August, November) two sets of data concerning the movement of migrants. The first set will consist of analyses of important (generally annual) statistical reports issued by the different countries, and the second set will consist of tables showing the monthly variations in migration in each country supplying information. Both these sets of data have hitherto appeared in the* Monthly Record of Migration.

In the present issue will be found particulars of migration in the United States in the fiscal year ending 30 June 1928, and in the Union of South Africa in 1927, followed by information from several official sources concerning migration in India, Ceylon, and British Malaya. These statistics on migration in Asia, together with those relating to the Presidency of Madras which were published in the Monthly Record of Migration *for November 1928, give a fairly complete picture for the year 1927 of the important movements of migrants in that part of the world, which are still very imperfectly known in Europe.*

United States Immigration in 1927-1928[1]

During the year ending 30 June 1928, 307,255 immigrant aliens arrived with the intention of staying at least one year (335,175 in the previous year) and 77,457 departed (73,366), showing a net immigration of

[1] For the corresponding statistics for 1926-1927, see *Monthly Record of Migration*, Dec. 1927, p. 477.

229,798 (261,809). Of the 307,255 immigrant aliens, 158,513 arrived from Europe, a drop of 9,855 as compared with the previous year. Of these, 45,778 came from Germany, 24,544 from the Irish Free State, 19,958 from Great Britain, 17,728 from Italy, 16,184 from Denmark, Norway and Sweden, 8,755 from Poland, 4,438 from France, 3,571 from Czechoslovakia and 2,328 from Greece. Immigration from Canada and Mexico also declined during the year, the number of immigrants from these two countries being respectively 73,154 and 59,016 as compared with 81,506 and 67,721 in the previous year.

With regard to sex, 165,977 immigrants were males and 141,278 females. Less than one-sixth of the total were children.

The unskilled workers comprised the largest group among the wage-earning immigrants, 36,218 giving their occupation as that of common labourer and 24,161 as that of farm labourer. Immigrants in skilled occupations numbered 58,928 and servants 28,751. There were 10,931 aliens in the professional class and 14,401 in the mercantile and the miscellaneous classes. Immigrants listed as having no occupation, being mostly women and children, numbered 125,092 or 40.7 per cent. of the total for the year.

The number of emigrant aliens who left the United States during the year was 77,457. Of these 57,185 or 73.8 per cent. went to European countries, the principal ones being Italy (17,324), Germany (6,645), England (6,039), the Scandinavian countries (3,508) and Poland (3,071). Other countries receiving over 3 per cent. each of the migrants last year were China (4,364), the West Indies (4,244), Mexico (3,957), Canada (2,529), and Greece (2,461). Over one-half of the wage-earners among the migrants leaving the United States during the year gave their occupation as that of common labourer, the actual number being 29,396. The outward movement of aliens is largely one of males, the men outnumbering the women by about five to two.

During the year 1927-1928, 18,839 aliens were denied admission to the United States. Over four-fifths of these aliens were turned back at points along the international land borders, 13,600 to Canada and 2,805 to Mexico. The number of aliens debarred on account of failure to present proper immigration visas is considerably larger than for all other classes, reaching a total of 17,885.

The number of aliens deported from the United States during the same period was 11,625 as compared with 11,662 the previous year. Entering without visa was the cause for deporting nearly half these aliens. The principal nationalities represented among them were Mexican and British.

The total number of aliens admitted to the United States during the year, both immigrant and non-immigrant, was 500,631. Of these 153,231 were quota immigrants, 123,362 natives of non-quota countries and 94,502 residents of the United States returning from a visit abroad. Other admissions during the year included 25,700 wives and children of American citizens, 1,446 aliens to carry on trade, 1,404 ministers and professors and their wives and children, 1,816 students and 984 aliens of the miscellaneous classes.[1]

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[1] United States. Department of Labour : *Analysis of Statistics of Immigration for June 1928*, and *Monthly Labour Review*, Sept. 1928. Washington.

With regard to the above figure of quota immigrants, which is appreciably lower than the total quota for all countries for the year, it should be noted that the quotas are counted at the American consulates in emigration countries at the time of issuing immigration visas. A report of the Department of State points out that during the year ending 30 June 1928, 25,889 preference visas and 136,536 non-preference visas, making a total of 162,425 visas, were issued.[1]

Migration in South Africa in 1927

The Office of Census and Statistics of the Union of South Africa has issued a Report on Migration Statistics for the year 1927.[2] The Report states that in 1927 the total number of arrivals in the Union of South Africa, including 8,446 passengers in transit, was 42,641, and the total number of departures, including 7,679 passengers in transit, was 43,440. The corresponding figures of arrivals and departures in 1926 were 41,626 and 40,207. Excluding the trans-migrants, the arrivals included 30,438 Europeans and 3,757 non-Europeans.

Of the European arrivals 6,598 were immigrants in the strict sense of the word (persons assuming domicile) and of the Europeans departing 3,988 were emigrants (persons relinquishing domicile). This shows a net immigration of 2,610 persons. The corresponding figure for 1926 was 2,776.

Non-European immigrants numbered 743 and non-European emigrants numbered 3,267. This gives a net emigration of 2,524 as compared with 1,653 in 1926.

Classifying the migrants by nationality, it is seen that the British born immigrants numbered 3,621 and the British born emigrants 3,667, representing a net emigration of 46. On the other hand, foreign subjects show a net immigration of 2,646 (2,917 assuming domicile and 271 relinquishing domicile). Of the net immigration of European foreign subjects 1,870 (71 per cent.) were from Southern and Eastern Europe, including 1,097 Lithuanians.

South African born emigrants numbered 2,205, three-quarters of whom left the Union by the land borders ; of these 958 went to Rhodesia and 573 to South-West Africa.

With regard to occupation, it is interesting to note that among the European immigrants 1,160 were recorded as being engaged in industrial occupations, 754 in commerce, 485 in fishing and agriculture, 311 in the liberal professions, 725 dependants and the remainder in various occupations.

Emigration from Bombay in 1927[3]

Only skilled labourers are recruited from the ports of Bombay and Karachi, and they proceed to Mombasa, Uganda, Kenya, Zanzibar,

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[1] *Interpreter Release*, 13 Sept. 1928. New York.

[2] Union of South Africa. Office of Census and Statistics : *Statistics of Migration 1927* (abridged). Special Report Series, No. 35. Pretoria, 1928.

[3] The statistics for 1926 were analysed in the *Monthly Record of Migration*, Nov. 1927, p. 439.

Dar-es-Salaam, Nyasaland, Portuguese East Africa, Abadan, Mohammerah, Basra, Bahrein, Persia, Iraq and British Somaliland. During 1927 a falling off in the wages of skilled labourers recruited for service abroad was noticed, especially in the case of those recruited for Iraq and Persia. The number of recruits was, however, appreciably in excess of the number recruited in the previous year. The skilled labourers are engaged by authorised recruiting agents in Bombay and Karachi, under agreements approved by the Government. Some authorised recruiting agents, or the sub-agents appointed by them, are reported to have extracted commission from prospective emigrants on engagement. Neither the Indian Emigration Act, nor the rules framed thereunder, contain any specific provisions whereby the rate of commission can be controlled or restricted. A reference was therefore made to the Government, which directed that unless the agents agreed to charge not more than 25 per cent. of one month's salary to emigrants as commission, the permission granted to them for recruiting skilled labour under section 17 of the Act should be withdrawn.

In other cases it came to light that firms were despatching individuals under agreements, without complying with the provisions of the Indian Emigration Act. As a result of the action taken, 12 firms were made to comply with the provisions of the Act. Prosecutions were also undertaken in 5 cases.

The total number of emigrants who signed agreements before the Protector of Emigrants at Bombay and proceeded overseas was 1,418, and the number who proceeded from the port of Karachi was 18, making a total of 1,436. The number of those who returned after the expiry of the period of their contracts and termination of their agreements was 1,193. In addition 302 unskilled emigrants arrived from Mauritius.[1]

Indian Immigration in Ceylon in 1927

The total number of assisted estate labourers from India arriving in Ceylon in 1927 was 159,398 (101,746 in 1926), and the number of other arrivals from India, including unassisted emigrants, was 125,739 (as compared with 114,421), making a total of 285,137 (216,167). Among the Indians who left Ceylon for India in the same year were 87,481 assisted labourers (61,265) and 123,581 other persons (182,348), making a total number of 211,062 departures (243,613). It will be noted that the number of arrivals increased considerably, while the number of departures decreased considerably. It may be recalled that in the November 1928 issue of the *Monthly Record of Migration*, in an analysis of the statistics of emigration from the Presidency of Madras, it was pointed out that the increased emigration from Madras to Ceylon was attributed to the continued bad seasonal conditions throughout the recruiting area.

Of the estate labourers arriving in Ceylon in 1927, 66,055 (41 per cent.) had been in Ceylon before. Moreover, the number of labourers

[1] *Annual Report on the Working of the Indian Emigration Act for 1927*. Calcutta, Government of India Central Publication Branch, 1928.

who revisit India is annually increasing and the Ceylon authorities are of the opinion that the greater the facilities for such visits to their homes, the more attractive will service in Ceylon become.

The total number of Indians in Ceylon in 1927 was about 885,000 out of a total population which possibly slightly exceeds 5,280,000. The majority of the Indians who are not estate labourers trade or work in Colombo. There were at the end of 1927 at least 719,552 Indians resident on estates in Ceylon, that is to say on plantations exceeding 10 acres in extent.[1]

The Agent of the Government of India in Ceylon points out in his report for the year 1927 that fears have been expressed in some quarters that the minimum wage provided for by Ordinance No. 27 of 1927[2] *plus* the free issue of rice or one free meal a day to each non-working dependant will not be sufficient to keep the labourer and his family in comfort now that his children under 10 will be entirely dependent upon him. He says that if the labourer had previously earned at least as much as the minimum wage in bad seasons as well as in good, and if the earnings of his children under 10 were an appreciable addition to the family budget, this might be true. He thinks, however, that these two hypotheses are extremely doubtful. The Minimum Wage Ordinance has been launched under favourable auspices, the most important being the declared intention of the planting community to co-operate in making it a success.

In addition to assisted immigrant labour, a large amount of unskilled Indian labour goes into Ceylon unassisted. The occupations in which such labour is employed, and the conditions of work and wages, have not been hitherto investigated. There are, however, indications that the Government of Ceylon may shortly formulate measures to bring all labour, apart from Indian estate labour, under control.

The figures for the last five years show a substantial annual increase in the Indian estate population in Ceylon. The Agent suggests that one of the reasons why so much fresh labour is absorbed every year may be the adoption of more scientific methods of cultivation necessitating more labour per acre than was formerly considered sufficient. Other reasons may be that a greater proportion of Indian labourers now go for a visit to their homes in India ; and that, as Indian labour is more migratory nowadays, a certain proportion is at any given time on the move and not working. The Agent considers that with the laying down of certain standards of work and wages and with the facilities which now exist for free repatriation of the unfit or disillusioned labourer there would seem to be no harm in allowing the law of supply and demand to work unrestricted in the matter of migration, as is the case at present.[3]

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[1] *Administration Report of the Controller of Indian Immigrant Labour for 1927.* Colombo, Govt. Printer, 1928.

[2] Cf. *Monthly Record of Migration*, Aug. 1928, p. 269.

[3] *Report on the Working of the Indian Emigration Act, 1922 (VII of 1922), Rules issued thereunder and the Labour Ordinances of Ceylon during the year 1927 by the Agent of the Government of India in Ceylon.*

Immigration in British Malaya in 1927

Indian Immigration

The total number of Indian immigrants arriving at Penang in 1927 was 156,132 (174,795 in 1926) of whom 123,826 were assisted immigrants, that is to say, free labourers imported at the expense of the immigration fund for work on estates, mines and elsewhere, and 32,306 other immigrants (traders, labourers and others who paid their own passages). Of the latter, 21,349 were of the labouring classes, the remaining 10,957 being traders and others. In addition to the above immigrants, 1,494 travelled in ships not belonging to the British India Steam Navigation Company and paid their own passages ; they are not included in the general analyses of the figures.

The number of deck passengers leaving Penang for Southern India by the British India Steam Navigation Company's steamers was 88,718 (65,786 in 1926), so that the net immigration was 67,414 (109,009). In addition to this, 4,551 returned to India by ships of other companies. It is estimated that about 62,000 of the returning deck passengers came from the Federated Malay States, which gives an estimated excess for the Federated Malay States of about 26,600 arrivals over departures, as compared with an estimated excess of about 64,100 in 1926.

It may be recalled that in the November 1928 issue of the *Monthly Record of Migration* the statistics of emigration from the Presidency of Madras to British Malaya were analysed, and it was pointed out on that occasion that the reduction in the number of emigrants proceeding to Malaya was due to the continuation of the restrictions imposed on rubber production and the consequent cessation of the demand for labour on many of the rubber estates.

It may be noted that the South Indian population in the Federated Malay States, which at the time of the census taken on 24 April 1921 was 305,219, was estimated at the end of the year 1927 at approximately 400,000 persons. The corresponding figures for the Straits Settlements are 104,628 and 104,000.

A Bill to amend the Labour Code, 1923, of the Federated Malay States was published on 12 October 1927. The most important of the amendments proposed in this Bill are that contracts for skilled work entered into in British India under the provisions of Indian law should be made valid, that provision should be made for prescribing standard rates of wages for children above the age of 10 years and making the employer liable to a fine for payment of a wage less favourable than the standard rate, and that provision should be made for allotments for labourers who have been employed on an estate for a certain period and have persons dependent on them.

An enactment to consolidate and amend the law relating to the employment of Netherlands Indian labourers was passed and came into effect on 23 September 1927. The main reason for its introduction was

that the old enactment was out of print, and no important amendments are made.[1]

Chinese Immigration in the Straits Settlements[2]

The number of Chinese immigrants arriving in the colony of the Straits Settlements in 1927 was 359,262, an increase of 3.06 per cent. on the 1926 figure of 348,593. The 1927 total has never been exceeded. During the same year, the number of deck passengers returning to China was 155,198 (120,308 in 1926). The net immigration was therefore 204,064, rather less than in 1926 (228,285). The following table shows the great increase in Chinese immigration in recent years ; the figures in the third column give the proportions to the index number of 1,000 for the year 1911.

Year	Number of immigrants	Index number (1911 = 1,000)
1913	240,979	892
1918	58,421	216
1919	70,912	262
1920	126,077	466
1921	191,043	707
1922	132,886	492
1923	159,019	589
1924	181,430	672
1925	214,692	795
1926	348,593	1,291
1927	359,262	1,331

During 1927 there were no restrictions on immigration. Passage rates for the first six months of the year were normal but later were lower than usual, especially from Amoy. The comparative prosperity of the staple industries of Malaya, combined with the extremely unsettled conditions obtaining throughout the year in the southern provinces of China from which the bulk of the immigrants to Malaya come, was the principal cause of the increased immigration during the year.[3]

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[1] FEDERATED MALAY STATES : *Annual Report on the Labour Department for the Year 1927* ; and STRAITS SETTLEMENTS : *Annual Report on the Labour Department for the Year 1927.*

[2] For the corresponding statistics for 1926, see *Monthly Record of Migration*, Jan. 1928, p. 20.

[3] STRAITS SETTLEMENTS : *Annual Report of the Secretary for Chinese Affairs, Straits Settlements, for the Year 1927.*

TABLE I. OVERSEA EMIGRATION

Period	Nationals															
	Germany	Austria	Belgium	Danzig [2]	Spain	Finland	Great Britain	Hungary	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Japan	Lithuania	Palestine	Netherlands	Poland	Portugal
1920-1924[1]	43,205	7,820	3,538	—	91,476	6,763	214,067	3,369	846	16,236	172,471	10,227	*	2,012	4,041	55,577	29,287
1925	62,705	4,627	2,498	*	55,544	2,075	140,594	3,519	414	30,181	104,421	1,655	*	2,419	2,987	38,649	21,575
1926	65,280	3,895	3,672	753	45,299	5,638	166,601	5,856	356	30,041	119,055	1,943	*	1,694	3,059	49,457	34,132
1927	61,379	5,354	4,130	94	43,867	5,096	153,505	5,586	206	26,148	136,094	1,892	*	2,271	3,239	58,187	25,704
1927 Oct.	6,983	387	268	0	7,029	322	15,691	185	6	3,885	11 740	126	*	333	147	3,967	2,204
Nov.	4,889	363	185	0	6,309	296	10,712	268	8	2,254	6.872	77	*	272	183	4.889	3,854
Dec.	4,057	263	131	0	3,894	306	7,240	132	17	977	5,326	81	*	152	99	4,821	2,042
1928 Jan.	5,237	263	91	—	3,664	375	7,792	160	—	1,059	5,363	61	509	80	136		2,096
Feb.	4,565	338	207	—	2,790	808	7,868	345	—	1,657	—	172	731	54	234		1,831
March	7,048	672	486	—	3,077	649	13,525	739	—	2,623	—	211	1,060	50	531		2,266
April	5,433	512	287	1	2,537	680	13,990	1,361	—	4,065	—	258	700	102	435	32,951	1,418
May	5,857	420	320	—	2,589	609	13,144	783	—	2,723	—	175	962	109	350		2,011
June	3,326	440	200	—	1,930	502	10,606	725	—	1,393	—	128	703	90	148		1.464
July	2,911	350	143	1	—	602	).693	831	—	1,466	—	149	—	70	114	7,581	780[3]
Aug.	4,096	246	176	—	—	652	18,196	648	—	2,106	—	167	—	—	224	4,313	1,096[3]
Sept.	4,542	360	2 1	—	—	562	13.819	271	—	3,318	—	97	—	—	714	4,278	1,166[3]
Oct.	6,368	378	194	1	—	474	--	—	—	—	—	196	—	127	193	—	—
Nov.	—	255	116	—	—	305	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Period	Nationals		Aliens						Nationals and aliens							
	Rumania	Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom	Germany	Argentina	United States	Irish Free State	Palestine	Rumania	Serb-Croat Slovene Kingdom	South Africa	Australia[4]	Denmark	Norway	New Zealand[5]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
1920-1924[1]	*	10,329	*	46,636	148,914	*	2,100	*	*	*	*	5,925	8,689	2,605	11,384	5,918	13,104
1925	2,540	15,005	909	49,841	70,247	121	1,681	11	2,638	4,483	16,957	4,578	6,975	1,948	8,576	4,334	7,379
1926	19,099	15,726	1,157	55,769	68,383	318	7.735	132	2,504	3,798	17,433	5,804	9,326	2,581	10,202	4,947	12,063
1927	8,343	19,527	1,268	57,936	68,834	161	4,704	233	2,492	4,742	17,032	7,996	11,881	4,145	9,896	5,788	14,833
1927 Oct.	649	1,801	97	2,885	5,807	13	320	27	249	706	1,077	635	726	371	856	604	1,067
Nov.	670	1,823	58	2,483	5.330	4	367	28	171	446	1,327	613	421	311	872	530	1,086
Dec.	433	1,252	71	2,452	8,659	6	203	34	173	698	1,357	145	310	282	267	259	1,046
1928 Jan.	452	1,051	56	2,296	4,933	9	137	5	141	650	1,543	347	387	351	747	354	811
Feb.	1,251	1,596	60	3,890	4,194	3	163	4	123	781	2,206	711	838	339	1,029	294	1,186
March	1,906	2,674	100	6,904	4,306	9	239	15	185	688	2,384	1,278	1,469	390	1,496	475	2,838
April	1,345	1,941	68	5,795	4,025	8	138	27	157	315		1,189	1,013	502	1,373	363	2,161
May	900	1,394	82	5,745	5,498	23	203	24	170	415	5,524	985	949	344	944	416	1,538
June	1,010	1,027	75	7,954	6,472	15	173	27	191	415		378	545	330	511	298	1,068
July	905	1,575	66	5,252	7,105	5	77	16	241	461	1,517	560	671	319	815	350	1,424
Aug.	705	1,615	146	5,079	5,635	9	—	30	308	343	1,143	616	889	333	685	365	1,188
Sept.	674	1,772	76	—	7,007	2	—	23	311	376	1,130	503	333	—	1,146	501	847
Oct.	874	1,988	111	—	6,907	—	127	14	190	—	—	511	—	—	928	660	891
Nov.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	466	—	—	808	475	—

[1] Annual average. [2] These figures are not available for the period August 1923 to January 1926. [3] These figures refer only to Oporto. [4] Since January 1925 these figures are obtained by the new method. They include the continental emigrants. [5] Including some continental emigrants.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Period	Nationals (repatriation)												Aliens	
	Germany[3]	Spain	Great Britain	Hungary	Irish Free State	Italy	Japan	Poland	Portugal	Rumania	Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom	Czecho-slovakia	Argentina[4]	Australia[5]
1920-1924[1]	*	47,445	69,433	997	2,789	66,458	15,379	34,651	16,501	*	8,175	3,715	132,325	90,837
1925	32,596	37,887	56,335	309	2,155	66,911	13,641	4,101	16,824	*	5,091	2,689	125,366	56,477
1926	29,656	39,949	51,063	400	1,786	71,520	13,750	6,017	16,846	1,189	5,550	2,884	155,111	59,464
1927	38,264	41,517	55,715	555	1,807	73,424	14,423	6,799	13,522	3,035	5,753	2,795	161,548	67,077
1927 Oct.	2,414	3,309	4,297	44	173	5,501	1,038	426	929	133	950	142	19,191	5,085
Nov.	1,893	2,524	3,181	39	129	5,753	1,590	494	714	224	462	194	20,593	6,730
Dec.	3,062	2,058	4,414	118	197	10,847	1,683	547	1,106	422	746	140	19,440	6,364
1928 Jan.	1,582	1,408	1,957	57	87	2,197	874		537	750	252	154	13,054	5,394
Feb.	1,402	1,650	2,671	35	108	—	546		952	208	218	239	8,197	5,555
March	2,265	2,005	4,347	29	148	—	1,499	3,163	881	252	368	287	11,811	4,367
April	3,647	4,885	6,476	42	196	—	1,454		1,412	335	514	157	8,105	
May	6,014	5,745	7,115	54	256	—	737		1,361	603	705	138	7,579	11,361
June	5,875	5,309	6,285	46	237	—	984		1,676	232	286	140	6,341	
July	5,663	—	5,066	—	268	—	882	654	307[3]	274	641	—	7,152	3,898
Aug.	5,794	—	5,071	—	194	—	1,131	572	537[3]	203	414	—	4,975	3,378
Sept.	3,318	—	4,149	—	180	—	1,095	400	279[3]	252	225	—	—	2,762
Oct.	2,898	—	—	—	—	—	1,645	—	—	258	435	—	—	—
Nov.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Period	Aliens										Nationals and aliens	
	Canada	Cuba	United States	Irish Free State	New Zealand[6]	Palestine	Paraguay	Southern Rhodesia	Rumania	Czecho-slovakia	Uruguay	South Africa	Belgium[6]
1920-1924[1]	85,658	52,534	394,144	*	14,538	8,875	332	2,494	*	204	2,906	16,803	5,867
1925	67,190	*	171,454	*	15,704	34,641	311	2,166	*	46	*	5,428	4,451
1926	115,040	*	181,820	197	17,868	13,910	317	2,958	347	26	*	6,575	5,694
1927	135,066	*	176,937	187	11,327	3,595	405	5,070	579	11	—	6,774	12,625
1927 Oct.	7,150	*	19,454	14	699	310	17	535	46	*	*	727	750
Nov.	4,165	*	16,510	31	743	415	12	508	44	*	*	674	509
Dec.	3,282	*	13,371	39	1,025	253	31	465	44	*	184	550	470
1928 Jan.	2,469	*	9,044	18	765	259	27	556	3	1	350	676	—
Feb.	2,858	*	12,265	20	602	65	28	474	2	1	146	657	—
March	12,282	709	15,505	27	536	84	—	517	8	5	248	612	—
April	24,056	481	18,841	51	341	74	—	401	3	—	333	435	—
May	20,545	742	16,396	99	620	129	—	505	14	2	312	536	—
June	16,983	810	11,981	52	345	63	—	—	9	5	201	419	—
July	12,739	707	10,422	185	476	49	—	—	10	—	—	651	—
Aug.	21,759	595	12,783	53	502	—	—	—	*	—	—	630	—
Sept.	8,924	842	16,552	71	—	—	—	—	22	—	—	588	—
Oct.	5,374	1,309	18,585	—	—	118	—	—	23	—	—	—	—
Nov.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

[1] Annual average. [2] Figures include Germans in transit to other countries. [3] These figures refer to the port of Oporto. [4] Including some continental immigrants.
[5] Since January 1925 these figures have been obtained by the new method. They include some continental immigrants. [6] Migrants in transit (returning) included.
The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE III. CONTINENTAL EMIGRATION

Period	Nationals							Aliens				
	Dominican Republic[3]	Finland	India	Italy	Poland	Rumania	Czecho-slovakia	Ceylon	Dominican Republic	United States	France	Rumania
1920–1924[1]	*	315	113,568	182,622	38,898	*	28,421	51,388	*	7,967	46.715	9,311
1925	*	415	154,873	159,737	42,769	39	14,510	53,203	*	5,442	54,397	4,138
1926	*	405	281,016	126,297	117,136	67	11,627	61,265	*	4,796	41,174	9,555
1927	*	392	221,973	91,958	89,427	572	7,433	87,481	7,219	6,424	89,982	13,775
1927 Oct.	*	17	10,792	8,435	6,017	165	743	22,761	443	595	5,746	1,649
Nov.	*	30	12,336	6,806	1,828	132	634		603	541	7,048	3,787
Dec.	*	24	8,188	9,139	1,195	11	371		718	426	8,813	1,653
1928 Jan.	135	22	3,193[2]	5,328		7	658		833	390	4,388	775
Feb.	147	35	6,770[2]	—		12	895	29,741	1,481	514	4,374	511
March	130	35	6,088[2]	—		30	1,050		1,444	625	1,609	712
April	121	31	6,011[2]	—	94,613	61	1,118	—	1,158	490	5,753	1,007
May	280	47	9,589[2]	—		126	1,163		863	742	5,118	1,115
June	152	29	13,601[2]	—		38	765	—	957	733	3,308	1,180
July	242	40	13,623[2]	—		14	591	—	995	699	4,871	1,248
Aug.	160	19	10,115[2]	—	6,136	10	631	—	969	853	4,723	1,232
Sept.	147	27	11,758[2]	—	4,760	161	735	—	806	1,086	3,858	818
Oct.	—	19	—	—	6,067	40	799	—	—	572	—	649
Nov.	—	17	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE IV. CONTINENTAL IMMIGRATION

Period	Nationals (repatriation)						Aliens								
	Canada	Dominican Republic[2]	Italy	Poland	Rumania	Czecho-slovakia	South Africa[4]	Germany	Canada	Ceylon	Cuba	Dominican Republic[3]	United States	France	Rumania	Czecho-slovakia
1920–1924[1]	*	*	68,181	—	*	*	*	27,591	30,362	68,770	31,448	*	157,747	201,188	12,794	2,192
1925	30,987	*	122,160	17,131	92	*	*	47,998	17,717	125,585	*	*	118,898	176,261	514	2,588
1926	62,293	*	106,099	49,171	65	4,124	*	55,157	20,944	101,746	*	*	154,475	170,366	4,469	2,226
1927	42,078	*	67,201	73,014	185	3,596		71,255	23,818	159,398	*	8,242	147,308	64,325	7,385	2,848
1927 Oct.	3,481	*	5,661	3,663	10	457		2,480	2,283		*	539	12,265	6,709	424	223
Nov.	2,478	*	6,178	12,296	26	410	24,272	2	1,739	11,048	*	669	11,248	2,209	436	98
Dec.	2,380	*	7,579	45,779	20	412		2	1,284		*	856	8,979	1,262	168	130
1928 Jan.	1,683	154	2,673		22	182		*	1,223			1,054	9,102	872	447	112
Feb.	1,812	152	—		17	175	18,102	5,441	1,454	20,432	12,500	1,443	8,263	1,195	385	232
March	2,670	160	—	15,340	10	174		45,000	2,383			1,390	10,765	1,537	1,710	281
April	3,313	157	—		7	231		19,943	2,927	—	9	1,179	11,868	3,312	506	285
May	3,833	102	—		10	230	15,307	9,180	3,096	—	115	788	9,762	11,114	680	41
June	3,526	196	—		16	181		2,247	3,320	—	141	967	8,438	7,812	811	17
July	3,394	157	—	2,162	18	179		1,400	3,044	—	187	991	10,260	13,075	503	—
Aug.	3,602	164	—	1,344	36	182	20,119	899	3,581	—	131	965	11,846	6,600	413	—
Sept.	3,184	158	—	2,088	58	195		2,674	2,739	—	245	829	12,765	16,007	714	—
Oct.	2,691	—	—	—	21	194	—	1,861	2,667		170	—	11,332	—	528	—
Nov.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—

[1] Annual average. [2] Including some oversea emigrants. [3] Including some oversea immigrants. [4] This column refers to natives.

TABLE V. MIGRANTS IN TRANSIT (OUTGOING)

Period	South Africa	Germany	Belgium	Danzig	Spain	Italy	Norway	Nether-lands	Sweden
1920-1924[1]	*	25,922	24,555	27,346	*	12,554	1,488	22,478	*
1925	6,044	20,405	10,101	12,120	1,799	20,813	397	16,288	*
1926	7,778	23,239	16,538	27,391	1,783	23,792	319	14.730	*
1927	7,876	27,900	21,092	34,744	2,195	24,452	256	15,064	*
1927 Oct.	537	2,462	1,208	1,564	309	2,522	22	726	*
Nov.	827	2,166	742	2,537	302	3,648	2	2,203	*
Dec.	564	1,975	642	1,803	71	1,238	11	1,102	*
1928 Jan.	561	1,513	451	1,406	212	—	8	1,156	117
Feb.	485	1,975	756	1,689	121	—	19	1,118	159
March	850	3,055	3,279	2,492	225	—	8	1,249	298
April	713	2,736	1,661	5,293	150	—	16	1,377	378
May	901	3,077	1,654	4,996	156	—	12	1,388	284
June	695	1,671	1,333	4,698	160	—	20	1,373	168
July	734	1,717	1,046	5,924	—	—	16	901	289
Aug.	685	1,798	2,788	2,742	—	—	10	1,675	163
Sept.	540	2,071	902	1,243	—	—	—	1,233	374
Oct.	—	2,328	633	2,030	—	—	—	1,452	203
Nov.	—	—	583	—	—	—	—	—	160

TABLE VI. MIGRANTS IN TRANSIT (RETURNING)

Period	South Africa	Germany[2]	Spain	Italy
1925	5,608	45,375	—	13,053
1926	6,791	45,859	—	12,363
1927	8,130	50,510	—	14,475
1927 Oct.	903	2,390	53	966
Nov.	942	1,624	98	882
Dec.	609	2,000	8	1,653
1928 Jan.	681	1,886	19	—
Feb.	635	1,389	6	—
March	763	2,214	18	—
April	625	3,900	62	—
May	707	8,913	34	—
June	529	11,366	63	—
July	758	10,505	—	—
Aug.	640	6,200	—	—
Sept.	706	3,975	—	—
Oct.	—	2,969	—	—
Nov.	—	—	—	—

[1] Annual average. [2] These figures also include oversea immigration of aliens into Germany.
The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

BIBLIOGRAPHY

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The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French, and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used.[1] Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1927

INTERNATIONAL

Belgium-Luxemburg-Turkey

Traité de commerce et de navigation entre l'Union économique belgo-luxembourgeoise et la Turquie. Du 28 août 1927. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 299, p. 4458.)

AUSTRALIA

Victoria

An Act to regulate Attachment of Wages. (18 Geo. V, No. 3537.) Assented to 13 December 1927. (Acts of the Parliament of Victoria, 1927, p. 130.)

An Act to make provision for Harbour Boards for certain Ports and for other purposes. (18 Geo. V, No. 3560.) Assented to 30 December 1927. (Acts of the Parliament of Victoria, 1927, p. 309.)

BELGIAN CONGO

Décret du 16 mars 1927. Saisie et cession des salaires ou appointements des ouvriers, artisans et employés, non indigènes, au service de sociétés ou de particuliers. (Bulletin Officiel, 1927, p. 317.)

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[1] *List of abbreviations:* A. N. = Amtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für Soziale Verwaltung; B. G Bl. = Bundesgesetzblatt; B. I. R. S. = Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales; B. M. T. = Bulletin du Ministère du Travail; B. O. M. T. = Boletín Oficial del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria; C. S. R. = Commonwealth Statutory Rules; D. R. A. = Deutscher Reichsanzeiger; Drj. Vest. = Drjaven Vestnik; E. K. N. = Ergatiké kai Koinoniké Nomothesia (parartéma B') (published by the Ministry of National Economy); Eph. Kyb. = Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Teuchos proton); G. U. = Gazzetta Ufficiale; I. N. K. T. = Izvestia Narodnogo Komissariata Trooda; J. O. = Journal Officiel; Lik. = Likumu un Ministru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums; R. Arb. Bl. = Reichsarbeitsblatt; R. d. T. = Revue du Travail; R. G. Bl. = Reichsgesetzblatt; S. R. & O. = Statutory Rules and Orders; Sb. z. a n. = Sbirka zâkonu a narizeni (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslovak Republic); L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office.

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Décret du 22 décembre 1927. Détournement de main-d'œuvre. (Bulletin Officiel, 1928, p. 42.)

Congo-Kasai

Ordonnance du 14 octobre 1927, No. 130, modifiant celle du 12 août 1923, No. 47, sur l'hygiène et la sécurité des noirs au service des entreprises d'exploitation publique ou privée de la Province du Congo-Kasai. (Bulletin administratif et commercial du Congo belge, 10 novembre 1927, No. 21, p. 378.)

Eastern Province

Ordonnance du 20 octobre 1927 réglementant dans la Province orientale, l'hygiène et la sécurité des artisans, ouvriers, porteurs et pagayeurs, employés dans les entreprises commerciales, industrielles ou agricoles d'exploitation publique ou privée. (Bulletin administratif et commercial du Congo belge, 1927, p. 407.)

Province of Katanga

Ordonnance No. 28 du 4 octobre 1927. Mesures d'exécution prises en vertu du décret du 15 juin 1921 sur l'hygiène et la sécurité des travailleurs et du décret du 16 mars 1922 sur le contrat de travail entre indigènes et maîtres civilisés. (Bulletin administratif et commercial du Congo belge, 1927, p. 454.)

FIJI ISLANDS

An Ordinance to make special provision for the Government of Rotuma. No. 9 of 1927. Assented to 14 June 1927. (Ordinances of the Colony of Fiji, 1927, p. 19.)

An Ordinance for the better Regulation of contracts and dealings with natives of Rotuma. No. 10 of 1927. Assented to 14 June 1927. (Ordinances of the Colony of Fiji, 1927, p. 24.)

FRENCH COLONIES

French West Africa

Arrêté relatif aux conditions que doivent remplir les réservoirs souterrains dans lesquels sont emmagasinés les liquides inflammables pour pouvoir bénéficier des dispositions prévues aux numéros 93 et 94 de la nomenclature annexée à l'arrêté du 28 avril 1927, portant classement des établissements dangereux, insalubres et incommodes. Du 30 avril 1927. (J. O. de l'Afrique occidentale française, 1927, No. 1193, p. 562.)

Arrêté promulguant en Afrique occidentale française le décret du 1er mai 1927, modifiant l'article 5 du décret du 20 octobre 1926, portant réglementation des établissements dangereux, insalubres et incommodes en Afrique occidentale française. Du 27 mai 1927. (J. O. de l'Afrique occidentale française, 1928, No. 1185, p. 441.)

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Mauritania

Arrêté relatif au travail dans les prisons, aux cessions de main-d'œuvre pénale et portant organisation d'un pécule en Mauritanie. Du 31 juillet 1927. (J. O. de l'Afrique occidentale française, 1927, No. 1204, p. 699.)

Sudan

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HONGKONG

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ITALIAN COLONIES

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[Royal Decree No. 884. Dated 8 May 1927. Police Regulations for Tripolitania and Cyrenaica.]

MALAY STATES (FEDERATED)

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MALAY STATES (UNFEDERATED)

Kedah

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UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Transvaal

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LEGISLATION OF 1928

CONTROLLED TERRITORIES OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Saar Territory

Verordnung betr. die verschiedenen, in Saarbrücken unterzeichneten Protokolle zwischen der Regierungskommission des Saargebietes, der Deutschen Regierung und der Französischen Regierung über die Unterhaltung der Grenze des Saargebietes, die Gebrauchsrechte an den saarländischen Grenzen und die Regelung des Arbeiterverkehrs an der deutsch-saarländischen Grenze. Nr. 285. Vom 18. April 1928. (Amtsblatt, 1928, No. 22, p. 178.)

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Verordnung betr. die Verlängerung der Amtsdauer der Beisitzer an den Gewerbe- und Kaufmannsgerichten. Vom 10. Oktober 1928. Nr. 575. (Amtsblatt, 1928, No. 41, p. 844.)

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INTERNATIONAL

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Germany-France

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ARGENTINA

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[Regulations under Act No. 11110 respecting superannuation allowances, pensions and grants to wage-earning and salaried employees of private undertakings. Dated 3 September 1928.]

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth

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New South Wales

Amendment of Regulations under the Workers' Compensation Act, 1926-1927. Dated 2 August 1928. (The New South Wales Industrial Gazette, 31 August 1928, Vol. XXXIV, No. 2, p. 152.)

Rules to amend the Workers' Compensation Rules, 1926, pursuant to the Workers' Compensation Act, 1926-1927. Dated 7 August 1928. (The New South Wales Industrial Gazette, 31 August 1928, Vol. XXXIV, No. 2, p. 151.)

Queensland

An Act to amend " The Primary Producers' Organisation and Marketing Act of 1926 " and other Acts in certain particulars ; and for other purposes. No. 8 of 1928. Assented to 11 October 1928. (Queensland Government Gazette, No. 94, 1928, p. 1343.)

Regulation in pursuance of the provisions of " The Pearl Shell and Bêche-de-mer Fishery Acts, 1881 to 1913. " Dated 27 September 1928. (Queensland Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. CXXXI, No. 75, p. 1174.)

Order in Council under the Unemployed Workers Insurance Acts, 1922 to 1927, to declare that the provisions of section 5A shall, from and after 10 September 1928, apply in respect of the employers of such workers as are engaged throughout the State of Queensland in the calling of waterside workers. Dated 24 October 1928. (Queensland Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. CXXXI, No. 102, p. 1434.)

South Australia

Order in Council to make Regulations under the Dried Fruits Act, 1924 to 1927. Dated 15 February 1928. (The South Australian Government Gazette, 16 February 1928, No. 7, p. 317.)

Order in Council to make Regulations under the Immigration Acts, 1923 and 1927. Dated 29 February 1928. (The South Australian Government Gazette, 1 March 1928, No. 9, p. 454.)

Order in Council to confirm a Regulation No. 83 made by the South Australian Railways Commissioner respecting injury pay, sick leave and medical cases. Dated 7 March 1928. (The South Australian Government Gazette, 8 March 1928, No. 10, p. 509.)

Order in Council to make Regulations under the Workmen's Compensation Acts, 1911 to 1927. Dated 14 March 1928. (The South Australian Government Gazette, 15 March 1928, No. 11, p. 562.)

Order in Council (to amend Form No. 3 of the Schedule to the Regulations made under the Workmen's Compensation Acts 1911 to 1927, on 14 March 1928, by striking out the words " and that you or your representative may attend such examination " at the end thereof). Dated 26 April 1928. (The South Australian Government Gazette, 26 April 1928, No. 17, p. 870.)

Order in Council to make Regulations under the Immigration Acts, 1923 and 1927. Dated 2 May 1928. (The South Australian Government Gazette, 3 May 1928, No. 18, p. 917.)

Victoria

Regulations under the Health Act 1926 amending the Cinematograph Operators' Regulations 1927. Dated 21 March 1928. (Victoria Government Gazette, 28 March 1928, No. 47, p. 1078.)

Regulations under the Boilers Inspection Acts : amendment of the Regulations prescribing the fees payable for inspecting boilers. Dated 28 March 1928. (Victoria Government Gazette, 22 March 1928, No. 51, p. 1133.)

AUSTRIA

Ratifikation der Uebereinkommen über die Gleichbehandlung einheimischer und ausländischer Arbeitnehmer bei Entschädigung aus Anlass von Betriebsunfällen und Berufskrankheiten. Vom 16. August 1928. (B.G.Bl., 1928, 76. Stück, No. 288, p. 1917.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung im Einvernehmen mit dem Bundesminister für Land- und Forstwirtschaft vom 2. November 1928, betreffend die Errichtung von Landarbeiterversicherungsanstalten. (B.G.Bl.,1928, 76. Stück, No. 290, p. 1932.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung vom 2. November 1928, betreffend die Wiederverlautbarung des Gesetzes über die Krankenversicherung der Bundesangestellten. (B.G.Bl., 1928, 78. Stück, No. 293, p. 1945.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung vom 2. November 1928, betreffend die Krankenversicherung der in Grenzorten des Auslandes wohnhaften Bundesangestellten. (B.G.Bl., 1928, 78. Stück, No. 294, p. 1954.)

Vienna

Verordnung vom 25. Juli 1928 : Festsetzung des Reinigungs- und Sperrgeldes der Hausbesorger sowie Vorschriften über den Haustorschlüssel. Nr. 114. (Amtliche Nachrichten, 1928, No. 8-9, p. 313.)

BELGIUM

Loi approuvant le Traité de commerce et de navigation, conclu à Angora, le 28 août 1927, entre l'Union économique belgo-luxembourgeoise et la Turquie. Du 19 janvier 1928. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 299, p. 4458.)

Loi encourageant la construction de nouvelles habitations par la remise temporaire de la contribution foncière. Du 10 juin 1928. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 172, p. 2821.)

Arrêté royal du 7 avril 1928, concernant : Mise en disponibilité des fonctionnaires et employés de l'Etat. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 99, p. 1517.)

* Arrêté ministériel déterminant les catégories d'ouvriers ou travailleurs assimilés qui courent le risque d'intoxication par le mercure ou d'infection charbonneuse. Du 10 août 1928. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 252, p. 3798.)

Arrêté royal du 19 octobre 1928, concernant : Dispositions relatives à la mise en disponibilité des fonctionnaires et employés de l'Etat. — Traitements d'attente. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 301, p. 4486.)

Arrêté royal du 30 octobre 1928, concernant : Réorganisation du conseil supérieur de la marine. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 305, p. 4532.)

Arrêté royal interdisant l'emploi de jeunes gens de moins de 18 ans et des femmes dans les travaux de peinture comportant l'usage de la céruse et autres pigments blanc de plomb. Du 31 octobre 1928. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 316, p. 4657.)

BULGARIA

* Ukase No. 13 : regulations under the Social Insurance Act (granting of invalidity and old-age pensions). Dated 10 July, 1928. (Drj. Vest., 1928, No. 113.)

Act to relieve the Supreme Court of work and in connection therewith to amend the Acts respecting (1) pensions for service ; (2) pensions and allowances for volunteers and militiamen ; (3) pensions for public health employees who have suffered any injury in combating epidemics of typhus, cholera and the plague ; (4) pensions for employees of State and other public institutions ; (5) welfare measures for settlement districts in Bulgaria ; and (6) penal procedure. Dated 4 October 1928. (Drj. Vest., 1928, No. 156, p. 1.)

CANADA

Alberta

Proclamation to provide that the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1928, being chapter 42 of the Statutes of Alberta, 1928, shall come into effect on 2 April 1928. Dated 2 April, 1928. (Alberta Gazette, 14 April 1928, Vol. 24, No. 7, p. 223.)

Proclamation to provide that the Woodmen's Lien Act Amendment Act, 1928, being chapter 43 of the Statutes of Alberta, 1928, shall come into operation on 10 April 1928. Dated 10 April 1928. (Alberta Gazette, 14 April 1928, Vol. 24, No. 7, p. 227.)

Regulations issued by the Workmen's Compensation Board in accordance with the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act (Accident Fund). Gazetted 14 April 1928. (Alberta Gazette, 14 April 1928, Vol. 24, No. 7, p. 248.)

Regulations under the Factories Act 1926 made by the Lieutenant Governor in Council governing installation, operation and maintenance of oil and gas well drilling plants and rigs. Dated 15 May 1928. (Alberta Gazette, 31 May 1928, No. 10, p. 316.)

Order No. 7, dated 7 July 1928, of Minimum Wage Board, governing female employees in the fruit and vegetable industry. (Alberta Gazette, 31 July 1928, No. 14, p. 420.)

Minimum Wage Board (Amendment of) Order No. 1, governing female employees in the manufacturing industry. Gazetted 14 July 1928. (Alberta Gazette, 14 July 1928, No. 13, p. 410.)

Minimum Wage Board (Amendment of) Order No. 4, governing female employees in personal service occupation. Gazetted 14 July 1928. (Alberta Gazette, 14 July 1928, No. 13, p. 411.)

Regulations issued by the Workmen's Compensation Board in accordance with the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act (Accident Fund). Gazetted 31 August 1928. (Alberta Gazette, 31 August 1928, Vol. 24, No. 16, p. 512.)

Ontario

Apprenticeship Act, 1928. (No date.) (Summary in Canada Labour Gazette, 1928, No. 9, p. 870.)

Saskatchewan

Minimum Wage Board Orders governing the employment of female workers. No. 1. — Shops and stores; No. 2. — Laundries and factories; No. 3. — Mail order houses; No. 4. — Hotels, restaurants and refreshment rooms; No. 5. — Beauty parlours and barber shops. (Effective on 1 September 1928.) (Hours and wages provisions reprinted in Canada Labour Gazette, 1928, No. 9, p. 851.)

CUBA

Constitución de la República de Cuba. — Publicada en la Gaceta Oficial de 11 de mayo de 1928. (Boletin Oficial de la Secretaria de Estado, Agosto de 1928, No. 283, p. 139.)

[Constitution of the Republic of Cuba. — Promulgated 11 May 1928.]

CYPRUS

* A Law to amend the Law regulating the employment of young persons and children in industrial undertakings. No. 35 of 1928. Assented to 11 August 1928.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Zakon ze dne 13. rijna 1928 o danovém zakladu rozhodném pro zapis obchodniku do obchodniho rejstriku a o uprave nekterych pravnich pomeru vydelkovycha hospodarskych spolecenstev (druzstev). (Sb. z. a.n., 1928, Castka 64, No. 183, p. 1071.)

[Act respecting the assessments governing the entry of merchants in the Commercial Register, and dealing with certain legal relations of co-operative societies. Dated 13 October, 1928.]

Navrh umluvy tykajici se zjednoduseni inspeckce vystehovalcu na lodich. Dne 29. brezna 1928.) (Sb. z. a n., 1928, Castka 63, No. 181, p. 1061.)

[Draft Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship. (Ratification 29 March 1928.)]

Vladni narizeni ze dne 17. cervence 1928 o uprave sluzebnich a platovych pomeru nizsich organu silnichich mostnich a vodnich v oboru ministerstva verejnych praci. (Sb. z. a n., 1928, Castka 45, No. 133, p. 623.)

[Government Order respecting the conditions of employment and pay of subordinate employees of the Roads, Bridges and Waterways Department under the Ministry of Public Works. Dated 17 July 1928.]

Vladni narizeni ze dne 14. zari 1928 o sluzebnim pomeru ucitelstva obecnych a obcanskych (mest 'anskych) skol. (Sluzebni pragmatika ucitelstva narodnich skol.) (Sb. z. a n., 1928, Castka 54, No. 162, p. 999.)

[Government Order respecting the conditions of employment of teachers in elementary and secondary schools (Service Rules for teachers in public schools). Dated 14 September 1928.]

Vladni narizeni ze dne 19 rijna 1928 o priplatcich zrizencum byvalé financni straze pripadne pohranicni financni straze ve vysluzbe a pozustalym po techto zrizencich, zemrelych v cinné sluzbe nebo ve vysluzbe. (Sb. z. a n., 1928, Castka 60, No. 175, p. 1053.)

[Order respecting allowances to salaried employees in the former customs and excise service who have been superannuated and to the surviving dependants of employees in the said service who died on active service or after superannuation. Dated 19 October 1928.]

ECUADOR

Decreto. Reformas a la Ley de Jubilación, Montepio Civil, Ahorro y Cooperativa. 11 de setiembre de 1928. (Registro Oficial, 1928, No. 750, p. 7825.)

[Decree to amend the Act respecting superannuation allowances, pensions to public servants, savings banks and friendly societies. Dated 11 September 1928.]

FINLAND

Asetus jolla ulkomaalaisten Suomeen tulosta ja oleskelusta maassa 23 päivänä marraskuuta 1926 annettua asetusta muutetaan toisin kuuluvaksi. 26 päivänä lokakuuta 1928. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1928, No. 290, p. 921.)

Förordning om ändring av förordningen den 23 november 1926 angaende utlännings inkommande till Finland och vistelse i landet. Den 26 oktober 1928. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1928, No. 290, p. 921.)

[Order to amend the Order of 23 November 1926 respecting the entry of aliens into Finland and their sojourn there. Dated 26 October 1928.]

FRANCE

Décret portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'application de la loi du 23 avril 1919 sur la journée de huit heures dans les pâtisseries du département de Meurthe-et-Moselle. Du 23 juin 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 152, p. 7175.)

Décret portant application à l'Algérie de la loi du 18 avril 1900 du décret du 2 avril 1926 (appareils à vapeur). Du 26 juin 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 152, p. 7172.)

Décret portant prorogation du régime des allocations supplémentaires attribuées aux titulaires de rentes servies en application de la loi du 20 décembre 1911. (Sur l'assurance des employés, en vigueur en Alsace et en Lorraine.) Du 28 octobre 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 258, p. 11622.)

Décret pris en application des articles 25 et 34 de la loi du 13 juillet 1928 et concernant les logements à loyers moyens. Du 20 octobre 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 249, p. 11329; Errata : J. O., 1928, No. 251, p. 11396.)

Décret pris en application de l'article 7 de la loi du 13 juillet 1928 et fixant l'ordre de priorité des constructions à réaliser. Du 20 octobre 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 249, p. 11331.)

Arrêté fixant les conditions générales de l'exercice du remorquage. Du 23 octobre 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 254, p. 11496.)

Décret portant modification au décret du 22 septembre 1925 réglementant le travail indigène dans la colonie de Madagascar et dépendances. Du 3 novembre 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 263, p. 11874.)

GERMANY

Verordnung über Lohnverzeichnisse und Lohnbücher in der Hausarbeit. Vom 6. Oktober 1928. (R.Arb.Bl., 1928, No. 30, p. I 252.)

Verordnung über die Beaufsichtigung der Bezirksknappschaften und besonderen Krankenkassen. Vom 6. Oktober 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1928, No. 36, p. 377.)

Bekanntmachung über die am 13. August 1928 in Berlin abgeschlossene Vereinbarung zwischen der Deutschen und Französischen Regierung über die Zulassung von Arbeitnehmern, die sich beruflich und sprachlich fortbilden wollen. Vom 10. Oktober 1928. (R.Arb. Bl., 1928, No. 29, p. I 243.)

Verordnung zur Ausführung der Abrede zwischen der Deutschen Regierung und der Regierungskommission des Saargebiets über Angelegenheiten der Sozialversicherung des Saargebiets. Vom 20. Oktober 1928. (R.G.Bl., II, 1928, No. 43, p. 615.)

Verordnung über die Zahlung des Reichszuschusses zu den Renten der Invalidenversicherung nach ausländischen Grenzgebieten. Vom 22. Oktober 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1928, No. 37, p. 379.)

GREAT BRITAIN

Unemployment Insurance (Banking Industry Special Scheme) (Amendment) Special Order dated 30 March 1928. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 310.)

Unemployment Insurance (Exempt Persons) Regulations, 1928, dated 2 April 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30.) (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 307.)

Unemployment Insurance (Courts of Referees) Regulations 1928, dated 3 April 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30.) (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 309.)

Unemployment Insurance (Payment of Travelling Expenses) Regulations, 1928, dated 16 April 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 325.)

Local Education Authorities (Choice of Employment Grant) Regulations, 1928, dated 16 April 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under Section 118 of the Education Act, 1921, (11 & 12 Geo. V, ch. 51), with regard to grants to Local Education Authorities in aid of their expenditure under section 107 of the said Act. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 327.)

Unemployment Insurance (Insurance Industry Special Scheme) (Variation and Amendment) Special Order, 1928, dated 17 April 1928. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 311.)

Unemployment Insurance (Benefit) (Amendment) Regulations 1928, dated 18 April 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30.) (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 322.)

Unemployment Insurance (Review of Claims) Regulations, 1928, dated 18 April 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 323.)

Unemployment Insurance (Periods of Incapacity) Regulations, 1928, dated 19 April 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 324.)

Order No. J. (45), dated 1 May 1928, confirming general minimum piece rates fixed for certain classes of female workers and the variation of general minimum time rates, piece work basis time rates, guaranteed time rates, general minimum piece rates and overtime rates for male and female workers and specifying 7 May 1928 as the date from which such minimum rates should become effective. (Title in: Ministry of Labour Gazette, May 1928, No. 5, p. 197.)

Unemployment Insurance (Insurance Year) Regulations 1928, dated 5 May 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 375.)

Amending Regulations, dated 27 July 1928, made by the Commissioners of Inland Revenue under the Income Tax Act, 1918 (8 & 9 Geo. V, ch. 40) as amended

by the Finance Act, 1925 (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 36) with respect to the assessment, charge and collection of income tax in the case of weekly wage-earners, and the procedure to be adopted for the purpose. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 582.)

Bisulphide of Carbon (Conveyance) Regulations, 1928, dated 27 July 1928, made by the Secretary of State for the Home Department in pursuance of section 9 and the Third Schedule of the Petroleum Act, 1926 (16 & 17 Geo. V, ch. 25) as applied by Order in Council dated 5 November 1926. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 597.)

Air Navigation (Amendment) (No. 3) Order, 1928. Dated 30 July 1928. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 591.)

Safety Lamps Order of 21 August 1928. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 643.)

Training of Teachers (Amending) Regulations No. 2, 1928, dated 27 August 1928, made by the Board of Education under section 118 of the Education Act, 1921 (11 & 12 Geo. V. ch. 51). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 646.)

National Health Insurance (Insurance Committees) Amendment Regulations, 1928, dated 4 September 1928, made by the Minister of Health under section 48 (5) of the National Health Insurance Act, 1924 (14 & 15 Geo. V. ch. 38), further amending the National Health Insurance (Insurance Committees) Regulations, 1924. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 662.)

Order C. (27), dated 25 October 1928, confirming minimum rates of wages fixed and certain variations and cancellation of rates made for the making of Hand-Hammered Chain from iron up to and including 11-32 inch, and specifying 5 November 1928 as the date from which such rates should become effective. (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1928, No. 11, p. 424.)

Trade Boards (Paper Box) Order, 1928, Special Order dated 26 October 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under Sections 1 and 2 of the Trade Boards Act, 1918 (8 & 9 Geo. V, ch. 32), altering the Description of the Paper Box Trade contained in the Appendix to the Trade Boards (Paper Box) Order, 1925. (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1928, No. 11, p. 426.)

Trade Boards (Tin Box Trade, Great Britain) (Constitution and Proceedings) Regulations, 1928. Dated 26 October 1928. (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1928, No. 11, p. 426.)

Trade Boards (Keg and Drum Trade, Great Britain) (Constitution and Proceedings), Regulations, 1928. Dated 26 October 1928. (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1928, No. 11, p. 426.)

Trade Boards (Hollow-ware Trade, Great Britain) (Constitution and Proceedings) Regulations, 1928. Dated 26 October 1928. (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1928, No. 11, p. 426.)

Trade Boards (Paper Box Trade, Great Britain) (Amendment) Regulations, 1928, dated 26 October 1928. (Title only in : Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1928, No. 11, p. 427.)

England and Wales

Trade Boards (Dressmaking and Women's Light Clothing Trade, England and Wales) (Constitution and Proceedings) Regulations, 1928, dated 28 August 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under section 11 of the Trade Boards Act, 1909 (9 Edw. V, ch. 22). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 628.)

Regulations, dated 15 October 1928, with respect to the constitution and proceedings of the Hat, Cap and Millinery Trade Board (England and Wales). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 678.)

Northern Ireland

Regulations, dated 2 April 1928, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee and the Ministry of Labour, acting jointly and in conjunction with the Ministry of Finance, under sections 13 (2) and (4), and 30 (1) of the Widows', Orphans' and Old-Age Contributory Pensions Act (Northern Ireland), 1925 (15 and 16 Geo. V, ch. 23) : Voluntary Contributors Amendment Regulations (Northern Ireland), 1928. (S. R. & O., of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 90.)

Order N.I.B. (9), dated 30 April 1928, confirming the variation of general mini-

mum time rates for certain classes of male and female workers in the paper box trade in Northern Ireland, and specifying 11 May 1928, as the effective date. (Title in : Ministry of Labour Gazette, May 1928, No. 5, p. 197.)

Unemployment Insurance (Benefit) (Amendment) Regulations (Northern Ireland), 1928, dated 31 July 1928, made by the Ministry of Labour for Northern Ireland under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 and 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O. of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 86.)

Regulations, dated 14 August 1928, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee, and by the Ministry of Labour for Northern Ireland, acting jointly, under the National Health Insurance Acts (Northern Ireland), 1924 and 1926, and the Widows', Orphans' and Old-Age Contributory Pensions Act (Northern Ireland), 1925 : Deposit Contributors Amendment Regulations (Northern Ireland), 1928. (S. R. & O. of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 89.)

Trade Boards (Northern Ireland) District Trade Committees (Retail Bespoke Tailoring Trade) Regulations, 1928, dated 15 August, 1928, made by the Ministry of Labour under section 18 of the Trade Boards Act (Northern Ireland), 1923 (13 and 14 Geo. V, ch. 32). (S. R. & O. of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 92.)

Trade Boards (Northern Ireland) District Trade Committees (Dressmaking and Women's Light Clothing Trade) Regulations, 1928, dated 15 August 1928, made by the Ministry of Labour under section 18 of the Trade Boards Act (Northern Ireland), 1923 (13 & 14 Geo. V, ch. 32). (S. R. & O. of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 93.)

Unemployment Insurance (Courts of Referees) Regulations (Northern Ireland), 1928, dated 27 August 1928, made by the Ministry of Labour for Northern Ireland under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O. of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 96.)

GREECE

Act No. 3573, to ratify the Treaty respecting the Consular service, navigation, commercial and civil law, and settlement, between Greece and Spain, signed at Athens on 23 September 1926, and the additional Protocol signed at Athens on 7 August 1927. Dated 21 June 1928. (Eph. Kyb., 1928, I, No. 195, p. 1569.)

Act No. 3575, to ratify the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Greece and the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, signed at Athens on 2 November 1927. Dated 21 June 1928. (Eph. Kyb., 1928, I, No. 195, p. 1577.)

Act No. 3647, to ratify certain legislative Decrees as amended. Dated 30 June 1928. (Eph. Kyb., 1928, No. 151, p. 1190.)

[Compulsory engagement by private undertakings of members of the Army Reserve.]

Act No. 3610, to ratify the convention respecting settlement and legal protection between Greece and Switzerland, signed at Athens on 1 December 1927. Dated 9 July 1928. (Eph. Kyb., 1928, I, No. 195, p. 1640.)

Act No. 3634, to confirm the Legislative Decree of 13 November 1927, to ratify the Legislative Decree of 20 November 1925, to add certain provisions to the legislation in force respecting commercial education. Dated 17 July 1928. (Eph. Kyb., 1928, I, No. 139, p. 1087.)

Act No. 3651, to ratify the Legislative Decree of 12 November 1927 to ratify the Legislative Decrees respecting the vehicle drivers' fund as amended. Dated 14 August 1928. (Eph. Kyb., 1928, I, No. 168, p. 1315.)

Legislative Decree respecting the organisation of the departments of the Ministry of Public Health, Insurance and Relief. Dated 10 August 1928. (Eph. Kyb., 1928, I, No. 165, p. 1293. Errata : Eph. Kyb., 1928, I, No. 170, p. 1382.)

Decree to amend the Decree of 5 January 1926 respecting the constitution of a Disciplinary Board for the Pilots' Association. Dated 7 September 1928. (Eph. Kyb., 1928, I, No. 201, p. 1708.)

INDIA

Notification (Department of Commerce) No. 236-C. (24) : (under section 12 of the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act, 1925 (XII of 1925), to direct

that the Indian Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Rules, 1925, be amended by substituting " 31 January 1929 " for " 30 November 1928 " in the proviso to rule 7 of the said rules). Dated 10 November 1928. (Gazette of India, 1928, No. 45, Part I, p. 965.)

ITALY

Regio decreto 21 giugno 1928, n. 1730. Revoca dell' esenzione dalle tasse di bollo e da ogni altra tassa, pel rilascio del passaporto per gli emigranti che si recano all'estero a scopo di lavoro e per le loro famiglie. (G. U., 1928, No. 177, p. 3532.)

[Royal Decree No. 1730, to revoke the exemption from stamp duty and all other taxes of the issue of passports to emigrants and members of their families going abroad for purposes of employment. Dated 21 June 1928.]

Regio decreto 29 luglio 1928, n. 2433. Erogazione di contributi dello Stato a favore della colonizzazione demografica in Tripolitania ed in Cirenaica. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2901.) (G. U., 1928, No. 267, p. 5604.)

[Royal Decree No. 2433, to grant State subsidies to encourage settlement in Tripolitania and Cyrenaica. Dated 29 July 1928.]

Regio decreto 24 agosto 1928, n. 2431. Approvazione del nuovo statuto dell' Ente nazionale per le piccole industrie (Numero di pubblicazione : 2902). (G. U., 1928, No. 267, p. 5605.)

[Royal Decree No. 2431, to approve the new rules of the National Organisation for small-scale industry. Dated 24 August 1928.]

Decreto ministeriale 4 settembre 1928. Approvazione dell'elenco delle infermità che sono causa di inabilità al pilotaggio aereo e limiti tra idoneità ed inabilità per i caratteri psico-fisiologici. (G. U., 1928, No. 242, p. 5023.)

[Ministerial Decree to approve the list of diseases rendering persons unfit to act as pilots of aircraft, and the boundaries between fitness and unfitness in respect of psycho-physiological characteristics. Dated 4 September 1928.]

Decreto ministeriale 18 settembre 1928. Approvazione delle norme e tariffe per le operazioni di carico, scarico, movimento e trasporto delle merci nel porto di Savona. (G. U., 1928, No. 241, p. 4995.)

[Ministerial Decree to approve the rules and tariffs for the loading, unloading, handling and transportation of goods in the port of Savona. Dated 18 September 1928.]

Decreto ministeriale 2 ottobre 1928. Direzione della disciplina del lavoro in alcuni porti del Regno. (G. U., 1928, No. 244, p. 5067.)

[Ministerial Decree respecting directorates for the organisation of work in certain ports in Italy. Dated 2 October 1928.]

* Regio decreto 4 ottobre 1928, n. 2299. Costituzione di speciali sezioni per la trattazione delle controversie individuali del lavoro. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2768.) (G. U., 1928, No. 252, p. 5260.)

[Royal Decree No. 2299, to provide for the establishment of special sections to deal with individual disputes in connection with employment. Dated 4 October 1928.]

Regio decreto 4 ottobre 1928, n. 2135. Modifica dell'organizzazione sindacale degli addetti ai trasporti marittimi ed aerei. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2906.) (G. U., 1928, No. 269, p. 5650.)

[Royal Decree No. 2135, to alter the trade organisation of persons employed in maritime and aerial transport. Dated 4th October, 1928.]

Decreto ministeriale 15 novembre 1928. Sostituzione dell' art. 49 del decreto Ministeriale 11 febbraio 1926, concernente l'istituzione dell' Ufficio del lavoro nel porto di Palermo. (G. U., 1928, No. 270, p. 5681.)

[Ministerial Decree to amend section 49 of the Ministerial Decree of 14 February 1926 to establish a Labour Office in the port of Palermo. Dated 15 November 1928.]

LATVIA

Papildinajumi un pargrozijumi likuma par cietuso karaviru un vinu gimenes locekliu pensijam. 1928. g. 19. julija. (Lik., 1928, 21. burtnica, No. 170, p. 580.)

[Additions to and amendments of the Act respecting pensions to disabled soldiers and their dependants. Dated 19 July, 1925.]

Pargrozijumi noteikumos par karaviru un valsts ierednu un kalpotaju pensiham. 1928. g. 19. julija. (Lik., 1928, 21. burtnica, No. 171, p. 580.)

[Additions to the Order respecting pensions to soldiers and civil servants. Dated 19 July 1928.]

Instrukcija pie likuma par lauku iedzivotaju nodrosinasanu slimibas gadijumos. 1928. g. 24. julija. (Lik., 1928, 21. burtnica, No. 175, p. 582.)

[Instructions in pursuance of the Act respecting sickness insurance in rural districts. Dated 24 July 1928.]

LEEWARD ISLANDS

Antigua

The Country Bakers Rules, 1928, dated 1 November 1928, framed 7 September 1928, by the Country Board of Health under section 11 of the Country Health Ordinance 1902. (No. 7 of 1902.) (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 19.)

LITHUANIA

Valstybes tarnautoju pensiju ir pasalpu istatymui vykdyti taisykliu pakeitimas. Nr. 1843. (Vyriausybes Zinios, 1928, No. 285, p. 5.)

[Amendment of the Administrative Regulations under the Civil Servants' Superannuation Allowances and Grants Act. (No date.)]

LUXEMBURG

Loi du 5 avril 1928, approuvant l'accord commercial conclu à Paris, le 23 février 1928 entre l'Union Economique belgo-luxembourgeoise et la France.

Gesetz vom 5. April 1928, wodurch das in Paris am 23. Februar 1928 zwischen der Belgisch-Luxemburgischen Wirtschaftsunion und Frankreich abgeschlossene Handelsabkommen genehmigt wird.

(Mémorial, 1928, No. 18, p. 381.)

Loi du 21 avril 1928, sur les associations sans but lucratif et les établissements d'utilité publique.

Gesetz vom 21 April 1928 über die Vereinigungen ohne Gewinnzweck und die Institute öffentlichen Nutzens.

(Memorial, 1928, No. 23, p. 521.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 4 juin 1928, portant aplication du bénéfice de la loi du 29 mai 1906, sur les habitations à bon marché, aux familles nombreuses.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 4. Juni 1928, wodurch die durch das Gesetz vom 29. Mai 1906, betr. die Erbauung von billigen Wohnungen, gewährten Begüngstigungen auch auf zahlreiche Familien Anwendung finden.

(Memorial, 1928, No. 29, p. 601.)

* Arrêté grand-ducal du 30 juillet 1928 concernant l'extension de l'assurance obligatoire contre les accidents aux maladies professionnelles.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 30. Juli 1928, betr. die Ausdehnung der Unfallversicherungspflicht auf die Berufskrankheiten.

(Memorial, 1928, No. 38, p. 693.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 30 août 1928, portant nouvelle fixation des jetons revenant aux membres et secrétaires des bureaux électoraux pour les chambres professionnelles à base élective.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 30. August 1928, durch welchen die Entschädigungen für die Mitglieder und Sekretäre der Wahlbüros für die wählbaren Berufskammern neu festgesetzt werden.

(Memorial, 1928, No. 48, p. 799.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 8 septembre 1928, portant modification du règlement du 11 décembre 1912, sur la création d'une caisse de prévoyance en faveur des fonctionnaires et employés des communes et établissements publics.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 8. September 1928, betr. die Abänderung des Reglementes vom 11. Dezember 1912 über die Gründung einer Fürsorgekasse für die Beamten und Angestellten der Gemeinden und öffentlichen Anstalten.

(Memorial, 1928, No. 41, p. 733.)

Instructions concernant la revision des listes électorales pour les chambres professionnelles à base élective. Du 12 octobre 1928.

Anweisungen, betr. die Revision der Wählerlisten für die wählbaren Berufskammern. Vom 12. Oktober 1928.

(Memorial, 1928, No. 48, p. 777.)

Arrêté ministériel du 12 octobre 1928, portant nouvelle répartition des sièges des chambres professionnelles à base élective.

Ministerialbeschluss vom 12. Oktober 1928, betreffend Neuverteilung der Sitze für die wählbaren Berufskammern.

(Memorial, 1928, No. 48, p. 796.)

MALAY STATES (FEDERATED)

* An Enactment further to amend "The Labour Code, 1923." No. 1 of 1928. Assented to 23 April 1928. (Federated Malay States Government Gazette, 27 April 1928, Vol. XX, No. 10, Notification No. 2217.)

An Enactment to amend the law relating to Health Boards. No. 7 of 1928. Assented to 23 April 1928. (Federated Malay States Government Gazette, 27 April 1928, Vol. XX, No. 10, Notification No. 2221.)

* An Enactment further to amend the Labour Code, 1923. No. 8 of 1928. Assented to 23 April 1928. (Federated Malay States Government Gazette, 27 April 1928, Vol. XX, No. 10, Notification No. 2222.)

MEXICO (UNITED STATES OF)

Decreto por el cual se crea el Departamento de Organización Agraria y de Credito Ejidal. 24 de septiembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 5 de octubre de 1928, No. 28, p. 4.)

[Decree to establish the Agrarian Organisation and Land Bank Department. Dated 24 September, 1928.]

Decreto que reforma la fracción II del Artículo 16 del Reglamento de la Ley de Colonización. 5 de octubre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, 10 de octubre, No. 32, p. 5.)

[Decree to amend § 16 (II) of the Regulations (of 6 January 1927) under the Land Settlement Act. Dated 5 October 1928.]

NETHERLANDS

Besluit van den 18den October 1928, tot wijziging van het Koninklijk Besluit van 16 April 1925, Staatsblad no. 145, tot vaststelling van een algemeenen maatregel van bestuur als bedoeld in artikel 29, eerste lid, der Ongevallenwet 1921. (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 401.)

[Decree to amend the Royal Decree of 16 April 1925 (Staatsblad, No. 145) to issue public administrative regulations as provided in section 29 (1) of the Accidents Act, 1921. Dated 18 October 1928.]

Besluit van den 22sten October 1928, tot intrekking van het Koninklijk Besluit van 17 September 1924 (Staatsblad no. 454), gewijzigd bij dat van 9 Januari 1925 (Staatsblad no. 9), en tot vaststelling van de wijze, waarop de kosten, welke voor de Raden van Arbeid voortvloeien uit de uitvoering van de Invaliditeitswet, de Ouderdomswet 1919, de Ongevallenwet 1921 en de Land- en Tuinbouwongevallenwet 1922, worden vastgesteld of begroot. (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 403.)

[Decree to repeal the Royal Decree of 17 September 1924 (Staatsblad, No. 454), amended by Royal Decree of 9 January 1925 (Staatsblad, No. 9), and to prescribe the method of assessing or estimating the expenses entailed upon the labour councils by the administration of the Invalidity Act, the Old-Age Act, 1919, the Accidents Act, 1921, and the Agricultural Accidents Act, 1922. Dated 22 October 1928.]

Besluit van den 15den November 1928, tot bepaling van het tijdstip, waarop de wet van den 12den Mei 1928 (Staatsblad no. 166) tot wijziging der Ongevallenwet 1921 zal in werking treden. (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 419.)

[Decree to fix the date for the coming into operation of the Act of 12 May 1928. (Staatsblad, No. 166), to amend the Accidents Act, 1921. Dated 15 November 1928.]

NEW ZEALAND

An Act to amend the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act, 1925. No. 11 of 1928. Dated 19 September 1928.

An Act to amend the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act, 1925. (19 Geo. V, No. 56.) Dated 9 October 1928.

Order in Council amending Regulations under the National Provident Fund Act, 1926. Dated 17 September 1928. (The New Zealand Gazette, 1928, No. 70, p. 2822.)

Order in Council amending the Samoa Immigration Consolidation Order, 1924. Dated 17 September 1928. (The New Zealand Gazette, 1928, No. 70, p. 2828.)

Order in Council under section two of the Inspection of Machinery Amendment Act, 1927, to make regulations in respect of land air-receivers. (Regulations come into force on first January 1929.) Dated 16 October 1928. (The New Zealand Gazette, 1928, No. 75, p. 3008.)

NORWAY

Kongelig resolusjon med hjemmel i §§ 31 og 32 i bergverksordningen for Spitsbergen (Svalbard) av 7 August 1925 : regler for arbeidsgiveres plikt til a yde sykepleie m. v. og for arbeidsgiveres ansvar ved ulykker pa Svalbard. Den 5 Juli 1928. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1928, Zwenavdeling, 3dje hefte, p. 375.)

[Royal Resolution under sections 31 and 32 of the Mining Code for Spitzbergen issued on 7 August 1925, to issue regulations respecting the liability of employers for medical attendance, etc., and the liability of employers in respect of accidents on Spitzbergen. Dated 5 July 1928.]

Kongelig resolusjon hvorved bestemmes at lov nr. 11 av 22 juni 1928 um brigde i lov um ulukketrygding for fiskarar fra 10 desember 1920 med tilleggslover skal tre i kraft fra og med 1 november 1928. Den 7 september 1928. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1928, Zwenavdeling, 3dje hefte, p. 451.)

[Royal Resolution to provide that Act No. 11 of 22 June 1928 to amend the Act of 10 December 1920 respecting the accident insurance of fishermen and the Acts to supplement the same shall come into operation as from 1 November 1928. Dated 7 September 1928.]

POLAND

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 20 lutego 1928 r. wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrem Przemyslu i Handlu oraz Ministrem Rolnictwa w sprawie podzialu terytorjalnego Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej na okregi i obowody Inspekcji Pracy. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 41, poz. 397, p. 934.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare in Agreement with the Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Minister of Agriculture respecting the division of the territory of the Republic of Poland into labour inspection districts and sub-districts. Dated 20 February 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej w porozumieniu z Ministrem Przemyslu i Handlu z dnia 24 lutego 1928 r. o udziale inspektorow pracy w czynnosciach dotyczacych pozwolen na otwarcie lub przebudowe zakladow przemyslowych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 41, poz. 398, p. 937.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare in agreement with the Minister of Commerce and Industry, respecting the participation of the labour inspectors in the issue of permits for the opening or reconstruction of factory buildings. Dated 24 February 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej i Ministra Przemyslu i Handlu z dnia 24 lutego 1928 r. o stosunku wzajemnym organow inspekcji pracy i wladz gorniczych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 41, poz. 399, p. 938.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare and the Minister of Commerce and Industry respecting the relations between the labour inspection officials and the mining authorities. Dated 24 February 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 22 marca 1928 r. o niektorych zmianach i uzupelnieniach ustaw gorniczych, obowiazujacych na obszarze Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 36, poz. 340, p. 736.)

[Order of the President to amend and supplement the Mines Acts in force in the territory of the Polish Republic. Dated 22 March 1928.]

* Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 22 marca 1928 r. o godzinach handlu i godzinach otwarcia zakladow handlowych i niektorych przemyslowych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 38, poz. 364, p. 803.)

[Order of the President respecting the hours of business and hours of opening of commercial establishments and certain industrial establishments. Dated 22 March 1928.]

* Obwioszczenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 21 maja 1928 r. o sprostowaniu bledu w rozporzadzeniu Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 22 marca 1928 r. o godzinach handlu i godzinach otwarcia zakladow handlowych i niektorych przemyslowych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 57, poz. 545, p. 1212.)

[Proclamation of the President to correct an error in his Order of 22 March 1928, respecting the hours of business and of opening for commercial establishments and certain industrial establishments. Dated 21 May 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Spraw Wewnetrznych w porozumieniu z Ministrem Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 22 marca 1928 r. o wspoldzialaniu organow policji panstwowej i wladz samorzadowych z inspekcja pracy. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 58, poz. 546, p. 1214.)

[Order of the Minister of the Interior in agreement with the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting co-operation between the State police force and communal authorities and the labour inspectorate. Dated 22 March 1928.]

Obwieszczenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 5 maja 1928 r. o sprostowaniu bledu w rozporzadzeniu Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 22 grudnia 1927 r o wykonaniu rozporzadzenia Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 24 listopada 1927 r. o ubezpieczeniu pracoznikow umyslowych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 58, poz. 552, p. 1216.)

[Proclamation of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare to correct an error in his Order of 22 December 1927 respecting the administration of the Order issued by the President on 24 November 1927 respecting the insurance of intellectual workers. Dated 5 May 1928.]

Oswiadczenie Prezesa Rady Ministrow z dnia 25 maja 1928 r. o wyrazeniu zgody Sejmu Slaskiego na wejscie w zycie na obszarze wojewodztwa slaskiego rozporzadzenia Prezydenta Rzeczospolitej z dnia 14 lipca 1927 r. o inspekcji pracy. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 58, poz. 550, p. 1215.)

[Proclamation of the Prime Minister respecting the declaration by the Silesian Parliament of its approval of the coming into operation of the (Labour Inspection) Order of 14 July 1927 in the province of Silesia. Dated 25 May 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Spraw Wojskowych, Ministra Skarbu i Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 22 czerwca 1928 r. w sprawie czesciowe zmiany rozporzadzen wykonawczych Ministra Spraw Wojskowych, Ministra Skarbu i Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej do ustawy z dnia 18 marca 1921 roku o zaopatrzeniu inwalidow wojennych i ich rodzin oraz o zaopatrzeniu rodzin po poleglych i zmarlych lub zaginionych bez wlasnej winy, ktorych smierc, wzglednie zaginiecie, pozostaje w zwiazku przyczynowym ze sluzba wojskowa. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 72, poz. 654, p. 1653: Erratum: Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 89, poz. 785, p. 1990.)

[Order of the Ministers of War, Finance, and Labour and Social Welfare to amend certain provisions of their Administrative Orders of 18 March 1921 respecting provision for men disabled in the war and their families and for the families left by persons who were killed or died or disappeared though no fault of their own and whose death or disappearance is due to their military service. Dated 22 June 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Rady Ministrow z dnia 30 czerwca 1928 r. o sluzbie przygotowawczej i egzaminie kandydatow na stanowiska podinspektorow i inspektorow pracy. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 78, poz. 690, p. 1910.)

[Order of the Council of Ministers respecting the training and examinations for candidates for the posts of labour inspector and sub-inspector. Dated 30 June 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 26 sierpnia 1928 r. przekazujace Komisarzowi Rzadu m.st. Warszawy decyzje w sprawach, dotycza-

cych dzialalnosci Panstwowego Urzedu Posrednictwa Pracy i Opieki nad wychodzcami w Warszawie. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 85, poz. 749, p. 1950.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting the reference of decisions in matters connected with the operations of the public employment exchange in respect of emigrants in Warsaw to the High Commissioner for Warsaw. Dated 26 August 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 31 sierpnia 1928 r. w sprawie przeznaczenia wartosci i sum pieniecznych, uzyskanych na podstawie art. 23, 43 i 44 rozporzadzenia Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 16 marca 1928 r. o umowie o prace robotnikow, na cele kulturalno oswiatowe. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 83, poz. 732, p. 1938.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting the allocation to educational and social betterment purposes of the sums levied under sections 23, 43 and 44 of the Order of 16 March 1928 respecting the contract of employment. Dated 31 August 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 31 sierpnia 1928 r. w sprawie przedluzenia terminu do skladania podan o przywrocenie uprawnien, utraconych z powodu przerwy w ubezpieczeniu funkcjonarjuszow prywatnych (pracownikow umyslowych), przebytem przed 1 stycznia 1928 roku. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 84, poz. 743, p. 1947.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting the extension (until 31 December 1928) of the time limit for sending in applications for the revival of rights of salaried employees (intellectual workers) lost before 1 January 1928 owing to an interruption of the insurance. Dated 31 August 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 1 wrzesnia 1928 r. o karach i ksiedze kar pienieznych nakladanych na robotnikow. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 83, poz. 733, p. 1939.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting fines and the register of fines imposed on workers. Dated 1 September 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Rady Ministrow z dnia 6 wrzesnia 1928 r. w sprawie kolegjow wspoldzialajacych w wykonywaniu zadan administracji ogolnej w zakresie administracji pracy i opieki spolecznej. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 81, poz. 711, p. 1927.)

[Order of the Council of Ministers respecting the committees to co-operate in general administrative duties in respect of labour and social welfare. Dated 6 September 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej i Ministra Przemyslu i Handlu z dnia 19 wrzesnia 1928 r. w sprawie instancyi odwolawczych i trybu postepowania przy zatwiedrzaniu regulaminow pracy w zakladach podleglych ustawom gorniczym z wyjatkiem hut. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 88, poz. 781, p. 1988.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare and the Minister of Commerce and Industry respecting courts of appeal and the procedure for the ratification of the rules of employment for establishments coming under the mining laws other than smelting works. Dated 19 September 1928.]

Silesia

Ustawa z dnia 1. pazdziernika 1928 r. o wprowadzeniu zmian w ubezpieczeniu od wypadkow. (Dziennik Ustaw Slaskich, 1928, No. 24, poz. 44, p. 111.)

[Act to amend the accident Insurance Act (German Imperial Insurance Code, 1911). Dated 1 October 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Slaskiej Rady Wojewodzkiej z dnia 27. wrzesnia 1928 r. w sprawie podwyzszenia zasitkow dla osob ktorym niemieckie instytucje ubezpieczeniowe costrymaty renty. (Dziennik Ustaw Slaskich, 1928, No. 23.)

[Order of the Silesia Provincial Council to raise the rate of benefit for persons from whom the former insurance institutions have withdrawn pensions. Dated 27 September 1928.]

PORTUGAL

Decreto no. 16:085 : Regulamenta a construcçao e venda das casas economicas. 16 de Outubro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 249, p. 2250.)

[Decree No. 16085 to issue regulations respecting the erection and sale of cheap dwellings. Dated 16 October 1928.]

RUMANIA

Decizie Nr. 39.703 Ministrului Muncii, Cooperatiei si Asigurarilor sociale, din 8 Martie 1928, privind rentele si pensiile accidentatilor din munca. (Buletinul Muncii, Cooperatiei si Asigurarilor Sociale, No. 7-9, 1928, p. 420.)

[Order No. 39703 of the Minister of Labour, Co-operation and Social Insurance, respecting pensions and allowances on account of industrial accidents. Dated 8 March 1928.]

Decizie Nr. 48.195 Ministrului Muncii, Cooperatiei si Asigurarilor sociale, din 19 Martie 1928, privind sporurile de scumpete rentierilor si pensionarilor accidentati din munca. (Buletinul Muncii, Cooperatiei si Asigurarilor Sociale, 1928, No. 7-9, p. 421.)

[Order No. 48195 of the Minister of Labour, Co-operation and Social Insurance, respecting cost-of-living bonuses on pensions and allowances on account of industrial accidents. Dated 19 March 1928.]

Decizie Nr. 31.769 Ministrului Muncii, Cooperatiei si Asigurarilor sociale, din 16 August 1928, completând dispozitiile deciziei Nr. 29.274 din 24 Iulie 1928. (Buletinul Muncii, Cooperatiei si Asigurarilor Sociale, No. 7-9, 1928, p. 428.)

[Order No. 31769 of the Minister of Labour, Co-operation and Social Insurance to supplement Order No. 29274 of 24 July 1928. Dated 16 August 1928. (Sunday Rest in banks.)]

SERB-CROAT-SLOVENE KINGDOM

Supplement to the Regulations (of 27 January 1926) under the Disablement Act (of 17 November 1925). Dated 26 September 1928. (Sluzbene Novine, 1928, No. 230-LXXV, p. 1201.)

Regulations concerning the classes of workers and the wage system in warehouses of unmanufactured tobacco. Dated 27 September 1928. (Sluzbene Novine, 1928, No. 240-LXXX, p. 1249.)

ESPAGNE

Real decreto aprobando el Libro VII del texto refundido del Estatuto de Formación técnica industrial. 6 de Octubre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 284, p. 218.)

[Royal Decree to approve Book VII of the revised Technical Education Code. Dated 6 October 1928.]

Real orden disponiendo se apruebe el Reglamento-tipo, que se inserta, de régimen interior de Comités paritarios de Trabajo a domicilio. 20 de Octubre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 299, p. 536.)

[Royal Order to approve the model standing orders for the joint homework committees. Dated 20 October 1928.]

Real orden disponiendo que para el despacho de los asuntos que quedan encomendados a la Dirección general de Trabajo, los servicios centrales de la misma se distribuyan en la forma que se indica. 20 de Octubre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 301, p. 593.)

[Royal Order to provide for the organisation of the central divisions of the General Labour Directorate to deal with the tasks entrusted to it. Dated 20 October 1928.]

Real orden encomendando a una Ponencia la redacción de un proyecto de subsidio contra el paro forzoso por medio de los Comités paritarios. 22 de Octubre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 299, p. 538.)

[Royal Order to appoint a Commission to draft a scheme for the payment of unemployment benefit through the joint committees. Dated 22 October 1928.]

Real orden aprobando el Reglamento del regimen interior de la Comisión mixta de Publicaciones de los organismos paritarios de Madrid. 23 de Octubre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 298, p. 521.)

[Royal Order to approve the standing orders of the joint publications committee of the joint organisations in Madrid. Dated 23 October 1928.]

Real decreto aprobando el texto refundido del Estatuto de Formación Profesional. 23 de Octubre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 306, p. 698.)

[Royal Decree to approve the revised text of the Technical Education Code. Dated 23 October 1928.]

Real orden disponiendo que se recuerde a los Médicos de los Establecimientos públicos de Beneficencia la necesidad de observar los artículos que se mencionan del Código del Trabajo. 31 de Octubre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 306, p. 721.)

[Royal Order to remind the doctors attached to public charitable institutions of the need for observing (sections 213, 214, 352 and 353 of) the Labour Code. Dated 31 October 1928.]

Real decreto relativo al regimen del Banco de Ahorro y Construcción. 2 de Noviembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 313, p. 766.)

[Royal Decree to issue rules for the Savings and Housing Bank. Dated 2 November 1928.]

Real decreto-ley organizando en la forma que se indica los Departamentos ministeriales. 3 de Noviembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 309, p. 779.)

[Legislative Decree to provide for the organisation of the Ministries. Dated 3 November 1928.]

Real decreto organizando los servicios del Ministerio de Trabajo y Previsión en la forma que se indica. 15 de Noviembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 321, p. 1071.)

[Royal Decree respecting the reorganisation of the departments of the Ministry of Labour and Social Insurance. Dated 15 November 1928.]

Real orden dictando las reglas que se indican relativas a las Cartas fundacionales de los Patronatos locales de Formación Profesional. 22 de Noviembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 332, p. 1300.)

[Royal Order to issue regulations concerning the charters of the local vocational training committees. Dated 22 November 1928.]

Real orden disponiendo que las Compañías de seguros de accidentes del trabajo y las Mutualidades que tomen a su cargo la indemnización de los mismos, remitan a la Dirección general del Trabajo, el día 31 de Diciembre de cada año, un estado de los obreros asegurados inscritos y de los accidentes indemnizados. 24 de Noviembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 334, p. 1334.)

[Royal Order to require industrial accident insurance companies and friendly societies which undertake payment of compensation for industrial accidents to forward to the General Labour Directorate on 31 December of each year a return of the registered insured workers and of the accidents for which compensation has been paid. Dated 24 November 1928.]

SWEDEN

Kung. Maj:ts stadga för rikets allmänna läroverk. Den 24 september 1928. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1928, No. 412, p. 1317.)

[National Education Code. Dated 24 September 1928.]

Kommunalskattelag. Den 28 september 1928. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1928, No. 370, p. 1027.)

[Communal Taxation Act. Dated 28 September 1928.]

Kungl. Maj:ts kungörelse angaende undantag för medborgare i Tyska Riket fran vissa bestämmelser i lagen den 17 juni 1916 (nr. 235) om försäkring för olycksfall i arbete. Den 24 september 1928. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1928, No. 356, p. 994.)

[Royal Proclamation respecting the exemption of German nationals from certain provisions of Act No. 235 of 17 June 1916, respecting insurance against industrial accidents. Dated 24 September 1928.]

Kungl. Maj:ts kungörelse angaende undantag för medborgare i Osterrike fran vissa bestämmelser i lagen den 17 juni 1916 (nr. 235) om försäkring för olycksfall i arbete. Der 6 oktober 1928. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1928, No. 361, p. 1015.)

[Royal Proclamation respecting the exemption of Austrian nationals from certain provisions of Act No. 235 of 17 June 1916, respecting insurance against industrial accidents. Dated 6 October 1928.]

Kungl. Maj:ts kungörelse angaende undantag för medborgare i Japan fran vissa bestämmelser i lagen den 17 juni 1916 (nr. 235) om försäkring för olycksfall i arbete. Den 12 oktober 1928. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1928, No. 361, p. 1025.)

[Royal Proclamation respecting the exemption of Japanese nationals from certain provisions of Act No. 235 of 17 June 1916, respecting insurance against industrial accidents. Dated 12 October 1928.]

Kungl. Maj:ts kungörelse angaende anmälen om olycksfall i arbete m.m. Den 9 november 1928. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1928, No. 429, p. 1497.)

[Royal Notification respecting the reporting of industrial accidents. Dated 9 November 1928.]

Kungl. Maj:ts kungörelse om Pandring i kungörelsen den 30 november 1917 (nr. 832) angaende särskilda bestämmelser i fraga om tillämpning av lagen om försäkring for olycksfall i arbete den 17 juni 1916 a arbetare, som användas till arbete för statens räkning. Den 9 november 1928. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1928, No. 430, p. 1500.)

[Royal Notification to amend the Notification of 30 November 1917 (No. 832) issuing special provisions for the administration of the Industrial Accident Insurance Act of 17 June 1916 in respect of persons employed in manual work for the State. Dated 9 November 1928.]

Kungl. Maj:ts kungörelse om ändrad lydelse av § 1 i kungörelsen den 31 december 1917 (nr 950) angaende utbetalning av erstättning enligt lagen om försäkring för olycksfall i arbete. Den 9 november 1928. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1928, No. 431, p. 1500.)

[Royal Notification to amend section 1 of the Notification of 31 December 1917 (No. 950) respecting the payment of compensation under the Industrial Accident Insurance Act. Dated 9 November 1928.]

SWITZERLAND

Loi fédérale sur la lutte contre la tuberculose. Du 13 juin 1928. (Recueil des lois fédérales, 1928, No. 26, p. 785.)

Bundesgesetz betreffend Massnahmen gegen die Tuberkulose. Vom 13. Juni 1928. (Eidgenössische Gesetzsammlung, 1928, No. 26, p. 731.)

Arrêté du Conseil fédéral complétant l'ordonnance du 29 novembre 1921 sur le contrôle des étrangers, modifiée par l'arrêté du Conseil fédéral du 7 décembre 1925. Du 16 octobre 1928. (Recueil des lois fédérales, 1928, No. 27, p. 828.)

Bundesratsbeschluss betr. Ergänzung der Verordnung vom 29. November 1921 über die Kontrolle der Ausländer, abgeändert durch den Bundesratsbeschluss vom 7. Dezember 1925. Vom 16. Oktober 1928. (Eidgenössische Gesetzsammlung, 1928, No. 27, p. 770.)

Basle-Town

* Gesetz betr. Abänderung des Gesetzes vom 11. Januar 1923 über die öffentlichen Ruhetage. Vom 4. Oktober 1928.

Verordnung über den Vollzug von § 12 des Gesetzes betr. die öffentlichen Ruhetage vom 11. Januar 1923/4. Oktober 1928. Vom 16. November 1928.

Geneva

* Arrêté du 17 février 1928 sur la sécurité des ouvriers appelés à travailler à la réparation ou à la construction d'immeubles.

Valais

* Loi du 11 janvier 1928 sur l'assurance-chômage.

Règlement d'exécution de la loi du 11 janvier 1928 sur l'assurance-chômage.

Arrêté du 29 mai 1928 promulguant la loi du 11 janvier 1928 sur l'assurance-chômage.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Act to consolidate and amend the laws in force in the Union relating to medical practitioners, dentists, chemists and druggists, nurses, midwives, masseurs and other classes of persons ; the keeping and sale of poisons ; the importation, sale and use of habit-forming drugs and as to other matters connected therewith ; and to provide for the extension of this Act to the mandated territory of South-West Africa. No. 13 of 1928. Assented to 18 May 1928.

Wet tot samevatting en wysiging van die wette wat in die Unie van krag is met betrekking tot geneeshere, tandartse, aptekers, verpleegsters, vroedvroue, masseurs en ander klasse van persone ; die aanhou en verkoop van vergifte ; die invoer, verkoop en gebruik van gewoontevormende medisyne en ander daarmee in verband staande sake, en om voorsiening te maak vir die toepassing van hierdie Wet op die mandaatgebied Suidwes-Afrika. No. 13 van 1928. Van 18 Mei 1928. (Statutes of the Union of South Africa, 1927-28, Vol. II, p. 180.)

URUGUAY

Ley. Se declara comprendido en la Caja de Jubilaciones y Pensiones de Empleados y Obreros de Servicios Públicos el gremio de periodistas profesionales y gráficos. 5 de Octubre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 6706, p. 230-A.)

[Act to admit the Union of Journalists and Printing Trade Workers to the Superannuation and Pension Fund for wage-earning and salaried employees in the public service. Dated 5 October 1928.]

Decreto. Se establece lo que las compañias telefónicas proveeran a los obreros que trabajen en postes. 26 de Octubre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 6709, p. 277-A.)

[Decree to require telephone companies to make certain provision for employees working on telephone poles. Dated 26 October 1928.]

VENEZUELA

Decreto reglamentario de la Ley de Extranjeros. 1 de Octubre de 1928. (Gaceta Oficial, 1928, No. 16633, p. 71328.)

[Decree issuing regulations under the Aliens Act. Dated 1 October 1928.]

Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

Société des Nations. Territoire de la Sarre. *Administration des mines domaniales françaises de la Sarre. Statistique du personnel ouvrier (ouvriers à la journée et ouvriers au contrat dénommés " Vertragsangestellte ", non compris les employés) des mines et usines de l'administration des mines domaniales françaises de la Sarre. D'après les résultats du recensement du 1er décembre 1925. Die Belegschaft (Arbeiter und Vertragsangestellte, ohne die Angestellten) der Werke der Administration des mines domaniales françaises de la Sarre nach dem Ergebnisse der statistischen Erhebungen vom 1. Dezember 1925.* Saarbruck, 1927. 163 pp.

Permanent Court of International Justice. *Case concerning the Factory at Chorzów (Claim for Indemnity). Merits.* Publications Series A., No. 17, 13 September 1928. Collection of Judgments No. 13. Leyden, A. W. Sijthoff, 1928. 105 pp.

XIIIe Conférence internationale de la Croix-Rouge, La Haye, 23 octobre 1928. *Rapport général du Comité international de la Croix-Rouge sur son activité de 1925 à 1928.* Geneva. 81 pp.

This report describes the activities of the International Red Cross Committee during the years 1925-1928, and, in particular, the work of assistance to Armenian and Russian refugees and the relations of the Committee with the International Labour Office.

Fédération internationale des Verriers. *Troisième Congrès tenu 10-13 avril 1927 à Paris. Compte-rendu.* 39 pp.

International Clothing Workers' Federation. *Report of the International Clothing Workers' Congress, 8-10 August 1927, Paris.* Amsterdam. 113 pp.

International Institute of Agriculture. *International Yearbook of Agricultural Statistics 1927-28.* Rome, 1928. XXXII + 557 pp.

International Secretariat of the National Unions of Journeymen Painters and Allied Trades. *Protocol of the Discussions at the Sixth International Painters' Congress held in Copenhagen, 4-6 July 1928.* Hamburg, 1928. 44 pp.

International Wheat Pool Conference. *Proceedings of the first International Pool Conference, which includes the third International Wheat Pool Conference, held at Regina, 5-7 June 1928.* 182 pp.

The first International Wheat Pool Conference was held at Minneapolis in 1926. It was attended by representatives of co-operative societies in Canada, the United States and Australia, and of the New York " Centrosoyus ", the central organisation of Russian co-operative societies. A second Conference, held at Kansas City in 1927, brought together, like the first, only the representatives of co-operative marketing organisations of wheat growers. Invitations to the third Conference, held at Regina (Canada), 5-7 June 1928, were sent also to other agricultural marketing organisations (cattle, dairy, wool, etc., co-operative marketing societies). For this reason the Regina Conference has been called the " First International Pool Conference ". Representatives of English and Scottish wholesale co-operative societies, Sir Thomas Allen, representing the British Empire Marketing Board, and Mr. H. J. May, general secretary to the International Co-operative Alliance, attended.

"We are confident", says one of the resolutions passed, "that the contribution these representatives of consumers' co-operatives have made to the deliberations of the conferences will lead to a closer and better understanding between consumers' co-operatives and producers' co-operatives, whose case in the markets of the world is not one of conflict, but one of adjustment."

Union internationale de la Chimie pure et appliquée. *Comptes rendus de la huitième Conférence Internationale de la Chimie, Varsovie, 4-14 septembre 1927.* Paris. 100 pp.

Special mention may be made of the reports on problems connected with the manufacture of artificial silk submitted to the Industrial Hygiene Committee. Much interesting and practical information is given, particularly concerning the evacuation and treatment of residual waters.

—— **VIIIe Conférence de l'Union Internationale de la Chimie pure et appliquée, septembre 1927. Comité d'Organisation.** *Résumé des rapports et des résolutions des Conférences Internationales de la Chimie pure et appliquée, 1920-1926.* Warsaw. 73 pp.

Includes an interesting passage (pp. 65-73) relating to the work and resolutions of the Industrial Hygiene Committee which was set up at the second International Chemistry Conference held in Brussels (1921), and has taken part in all the subsequent conferences.

Union internationale des Associations pour la Société des Nations. *Conférence économique internationale à Prague, 4-6 octobre 1928. Rapports nationaux sur l'application des recommandations de Genève.* Prague, Association tchécoslovaque pour la S.D.N., 1928. 63 pp.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

AUSTRALIA

QUEENSLAND

Report by the Director of Marketing to the Secretary for Agriculture and Stock under "The Primary Producers' Organisation and Marketing Act of 1926" (Embracing a review of the operations of the year ending 30 June 1927). Brisbane, 1927. 11 pp., graphs.

In his report for 1927 the Director of Marketing notes that the new organisation of the agricultural industry of Queensland (reconstitution of the Council of Agriculture on a basis of representation by separate commodities) came into force on 1 January 1927. "The general policy has been uniformly successful from the inception. No single one of the Marketing Boards has been unsuccessful in its operations. All have maintained soundness financially. For the year ended 30 June 1927, it is estimated that the net gain to the primary producers of Queensland (exclusive of the sugar-cane growers) as a result of organised marketing during the financial year is more than one million pounds sterling."

A number of interesting graphs illustrating the course of organised marketing as practised in Queensland are included in this report.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Statistical Register 1926-1927. Compiled from Official Records. Adelaide, 1928. 15 pp.

BELGIUM

Ministère de l'Industrie, du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale. Direction générale du Travail. Section de la Statistique. *Enquête sur la situation des industries (établissements de 10 ouvriers et plus) 31 octobre 1926.* Seconde Partie. Volume II. *Exposé des méthodes et analyse des résultats.* Brussels, 1928. 56 pp.

—— **Office du Travail.** *Statistique des Accidents du Travail élaborée par l'Office du Travail d'après les documents fournis en exécution de la loi du 24 décembre 1903 sur la réparation des dommages résultant des accidents du travail. Année 1922.* Tome I. Cadres I à IX. VII + 635 pp. Tome II. Cadres X et XI. *Exposé des résultats et tableaux comparatifs.* VIII + 587 pp. Brussels, 1927.

Ministère de l'Intérieur et de l'Hygiène. *Annuaire statistique de la Belgique et du Congo belge 1925-1926.* Brussels, 1928. CXXVII + 286 pp. 15 frs.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Ministère de la Prévoyance sociale. *Politique et prévoyance sociales en Tchécoslovaquie du 1er janvier au 31 décembre 1927.* Prepared from official reports by Dr. Jean RIPA. Publications of the Social Institute No. 38. Prague, 1928. 29 pp.

Dr. Ripa, Counsellor in the Czechoslovak Ministry of Social Welfare, describes the organisation of this Department and gives an account of social policy in Czechoslovakia during 1927, more especially as regards assistance to young persons and the infirm, housing, labour protection, unemployment relief, employment facilities, home work, shop committees, factory inspection, social insurance and emigration.

DENMARK

Den XI Internationale Arbejdskonference, Genève 1928. Beretning fra de danske Delegerede. Reprinted from *Socialt Tidsskrift*, November 1928. Copenhagen, 1928. 54 pp.

Report by the Danish Delegates on the Eleventh Session of the International Labour Conference. A table showing the progress of ratifications of International Labour Conventions up to October 1928 is given as an appendix.

ESTONIA

Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale. *La législation sociale en Estonie.* By Woldemar GROHMANN. Tallinn, 1928. 40 pp.

This clear and brief exposition of social legislation in Estonia deals with labour regulation, social insurance and public assistance, and the position of Estonia in regard to the International Labour Conventions.

FINLAND

Socialministeriet Försäkringsbyra. *Arbetsstatistik. Understödskassor, ar 1926.* Finlande Officiella Statistik. XXVI. *Statistique ouvrière. Caisses de Secours, année 1926.* Statistique officielle de Finlande, XXVI. Helsingfors, 1928. 91 pp.

FRANCE

Ministère du Travail, de l'Hygiène, de l'Assistance et de la Prévoyance sociales. Statistique générale de la France. *Annuaire statistique 1927. France et Colonies.* Paris, 1928. L + 438 pp.

GERMANY

Reichsgesundheitsamt. *Arbeiter aus dem Reichsgesundheitsamte.* Sechzigster Band. Erstes Heft. Berlin, 1928.

Statistisches Reichsamt. *Statistisches Jahrbuch für das Deutsche Reich, 1928.* Berlin, 1928.

HAMBURG

Gesundheitsbehörde Hamburg. *Hygiene und soziale Hygiene in Hamburg. Zur neunzigsten Versammlung der Deutschen Naturforscher und Aertze in Hamburg im Jahre 1928.* Hamburg, 1928. XI + 672 pp.

This well-planned and well-illustrated work, relating to public health and social hygiene institutions in Hamburg, includes two articles devoted respectively to factory inspection (Mr. E. SCHAFER) and to occupational associations (SASS).

Statistisches Landesamt. *Statistik des Hamburgischen Staates.* Heft XXXIV. *Die Volks-, Berufs- und Betriebszählung vom 16. Juni 1925.* 3. Teil: *Die gewerbliche Betriebszählung.* Hamburg, 1928. 223 pp.

SAXONY

Arbeitsministerium. *Jahresberichte der Sächsischen Gewerbe-Aufsichtsbeamten für 1927 nebst Jahresbericht des Oberbergamtes und der Bergämter über den sächsischen Bergbau und die unterirdisch betriebenen gewerblichen Gruben.* Sonderausgabe nach den von der Reichs-Arbeitsverwaltung veröffentlichten Jahresberichten der Gewerbe-Aufsichtsbeamten. Dresden, C. Heinrich, 1928. x + 385 pp.

GREAT BRITAIN

Colonial Office. *Report by His Britannic Majesty's Government to the Council of the League of Nations on the Administration of Togoland under British Mandate for the Year 1927.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 33 pp. 3s.

—— *Report by His Britannic Majesty's Government to the Council of the League of Nations on the Administration of the British Cameroons for the Year 1927.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 128 pp., maps. 5s.

Committee on Industry and Trade. *Survey of Metal Industries: Iron and Steel, Engineering, Electrical Manufacturing, Shipbuilding, with a chapter on the Coal Industry.* Being Part IV of a Survey of Industries. London, H.M. Stationery Office, VIII + 528 pp. 5s.

Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries. *Report of Proceedings under the Agricultural Wages (Regulation) Act for the Year ending 30 September 1927.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 84 pp. 1s. 6d.

INDIA

Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India for the year ending 31 December 1927. Calcutta, Government of India Central Publication Branch, 1928. VII + 193 pp. Rs. 2–4 or 4s.

ITALY

Cassa nazionale per le Assicurazioni sociali. *La regolamentazione internazionale dell' assicurazione malattia e la Riforma italiana in materia di previdenza e di assicurazioni sociali.* Estratto dalla pubblicazione *Le Assicurazioni Sociale*, Anno IV, Marzo-Aprile 1928, N. 2. Rome, 1928. 28 pp.

NETHERLANDS

Ministerie van Arbeid, Handel en Nijverheid. *Geneeskundige Onderzoekingen der Arbeidsinspectie in 1927 en Mededeelingen Omtrent Beroepsziekten.* Overdruk uit het *Centraal Verslag der Arbeidsinspectie over 1927.* The Hague, 1928. Pp. 205-349, illustr. 0.50 fl.

This reprint from the general report on factory inspection in the Netherlands during 1927 gives the results of medical examinations of workers in various industries and contains a number of communications concerning occupational diseases.

Verslag omtrent de Bemoeiingen der Gemeente Amsterdam in Arbeidszaken en de Verzekering tegen Werkloosheid over 1927. 90 pp.

Report for 1927 on the activities of the municipal authorities of Amsterdam in connection with insurance against unemployment and other matters affecting labour.

NEW ZEALAND

Census and Statistics Office. *Statistical Report for the Year 1926. With a Statistical Summary of the Dominion from 1877 to 1926.* Wellington, 1928. XXXVIII + 190 pp. 4s.

Department of Labour. *Report 1 April 1927 to 31 March 1928.* Wellington, 1928. 33 pp.

National Industrial Conference 1928. *Report of Proceedings.* Wellington, 1928. IV + 450 pp.

This volume contains a full account of the proceedings of the New Zealand National Industrial Conference held from 27 March to 18 May 1928, a summary

of which was given in *Industrial and Labour Information*, Volume XXVI, No. 11, 11 June 1928, p. 382, and Volume XXVII, No. 8, 20 August 1928, p. 193. It also includes several interesting papers by New Zealand economists dealing with the various problems discussed by the Conference, and in particular with the system of arbitration and conciliation of industrial disputes.

NORWAY

Statens Inspektorat for Arbeidsformidlingen og Arbeidsledighedsforsikringen. *Arsberetning 1926-27.* Oslo, Arnesen, 1928. 28 pp.

Annual report of the Norwegian Inspectorate of Labour Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance for the financial year 1926-1927.

Statistiske Centralbyra. *Statistisk Arbok for Kongeriket Norge, 1928. Annuaire statistique de la Norvège, 1928.* Oslo, 1928. 272 pp.

POLAND

Glowny Urzad Statystyczny. Office central de Statistique. *Rocznik Statystyki Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej, 1928. Annuaire statistique de la République polonaise, 1928.* Warsaw. XLIX + 606 pp.

Ministère des Finances. *Industrie polonaise en 1926.* By B. RZEPECKI. Warsaw. 44 pp.

Describes the position of Polish industry in 1926 and the state of employment in the different branches of industry. Data are also supplied relating to home consumption and exports, the part played by home and foreign markets in the renewed industrial activity, and, finally, the industrial reorganisation in Poland.

Ministère du Travail et de l'Assistance sociale. *L'hygiène du travail en Pologne.* Warsaw, 1927. 20 pp.

—— *Rocznik Pracowniczych Zwiazków Zawodowych w Polsce. Rok 1927. Annuaire des syndicats professionnels des travailleurs en Pologne, 1927.* Warsaw, 1928. 80 pp.

The data given in this yearbook were obtained by means of a questionnaire addressed to the occupational organisations in Poland. They relate to the general situation as regards occupational organisation in that country, trade unions, intellectual workers' and civil servants' organisations. Alphabetical lists of occupational organisations, and of their publications in 1927, and reports on their activities and on conferences and congresses held in 1927, are given in an appendix.

Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. *Ten Years' Social Policy in Poland, 1918-1928.* Warsaw, 1928. 74 pp., diagrams, maps.

This statement, prepared by Mrs. Bernstein-Lychowska, Counsellor in the Polish Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, is the first attempt at a connected account of the development of social policy in the Polish Republic. A description of the organisation of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare is followed by an account of the difficulties which beset the work of that Department during the early days of the Republic and the period preceding the stabilisation of the currency. Protective labour legislation, labour inspection, social insurance, methods of conciliation and arbitration in agriculture and in industry, workers' organisations, and emigration are then dealt with in turn. A special paragraph is devoted to Poland's relations with the International Labour Organisation and the ratification of International Labour Conventions. Mrs. Bernstein-Lychowska also gives a brief account of the functions of the mixed " Consultative Councils " attached to the Ministry.

RUMANIA

Ministerul muncii, cooperatiei si asigurarilor sociale. Directia de studii si statistica. (a) *Conflictele colective de munca din 1927.* XXXXIII + 72 pp. (b) *Conventiile colective de munca din 1927.* LXIII + 338 pp. (c) *Miscarea salariilor in anul 1927.* XVIII + 177 pp. Bucarest, 1928.

These three reports deal respectively with industrial disputes, collective agreements and wages in Rumania during 1927.

SPAIN

Instituto Nacional de Previsión. *Qué es el Instituto Nacional de Previsión.* Madrid, 1927. 24 pp.

Describes the origin, organisation and work of the Spanish National Provident Institute.

SWEDEN

Kommerskollegium. *Industri, berättelse för ar 1926.* Sveriges officiella statistik. Industri och bergshantering. Stockholm, 1928.

The final report of the Swedish Board of Trade on Swedish Industry during 1926. The report contains a French summary.

SWITZERLAND

Bureau fédéral de Statistique. *Annuaire statistique de la Suisse, 1927.* Berne, 1928. xx + 388 pp. 6 frs.

Département fédéral de l'Economie publique. *Assurance-vieillesse et assurance-survivants. Exposé des motifs d'un projet de loi fédérale et texte de ce projet.* Berne, 1928. 148 pp.

This volume is also published in German.

—— *Rapports économiques et statistique sociale. La législation suisse en matière de réglementation du travail et d'assurances sociales, du 1er octobre 1924 au 31 décembre 1927.* Berne, 1928. 188 pp.

Office fédéral du Travail. *Assurance-chômage. Principes d'application de la loi fédérale du 17 octobre 1924 concernant l'allocation de subventions pour l'assurance-chômage et de l'ordonnance I du 9 avril 1925 concernant l'exécution de ladite loi.* Berne, 1928. 54 pp.

UNITED STATES

Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. *How to use Current Business Statistics.* Prepared by Mortimer B. Lane. Government Printing Office, 1928. vi + 90 pp. 15 cents.

This study indicates the practical value to business men of current business statistics. In a foreword, Mr. Hoover states that during the past five years of prosperity, the absence of the violent fluctuations which have characterised most of the previous periods of great activity is in large measure " due to greater knowledge of the current facts of business and a growing experience in utilising this knowledge. The small business man particularly has benefited through the use of current statistics. . . . This knowledge has helped him to stabilise his business in spite of intense competition and the lowering of price levels of the past few years. " By use of the data available, business men can guide their companies with profit " by statistical knowledge instead of guesswork ".

Striking examples from the experience of various companies are given to show how profits have been increased or losses avoided by the use of current business statistics. Outlines are given of the systems adopted by certain undertakings for using business statistics as a means of forecasting the trend of business conditions in the early future and for planning their production on the basis of these forecasts. A description is given of methods of interpreting and applying in business life the statistics published regularly by the United States Department of Commerce.

Department of Labour. Bureau of Labour Statistics. *Activities and Functions of a State Department of Labour.* Bulletin No. 479. Miscellaneous Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. v + 159 pp. 25 cents.

—— —— *American Trade Unions and the Problem of Unemployment.* From the *Monthly Labour Review,* March 1928. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. 23 pp.

This article gives a detailed account of the measures which have been taken by trade unions in the United States to prevent the occurrence of unemployment among their members and to alleviate its effects when it occurs.

—— —— *Apprenticeship in Building Construction.* Bulletin No. 459. Miscellaneous Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. v + 133 pp. 20 cents.

—— —— *Proceedings of the Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services held at Detroit, Mich., 25-28 October 1927.* Bulletin No. 478. Employment and Unemployment Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. vi + 36 pp. 10 cents.

This Bulletin contains papers, by officials of employment services, dealing among others with the following questions: "Should employment work be a State monopoly"; "Civilian vocational rehabilitation"; "Some of the problems of the middle-aged man — his chances of securing employment"; "The employment service and the agricultural interests"; "The function of a Federal Government in a co-ordinated nation-wide system of employment offices"; "Uniform methods in management of employment services".

Federal Board for Vocational Education. *Co-operative Part-Time Education. The Present Status of Co-operative Schools and Classes in the United States with Suggestions as to Methods by which such Work may be organised.* Bulletin No. 130. Trade and Industrial Series, No 36. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. vii + 35 pp.

—— *Workmen's Compensation Legislation in Relation to Vocational Rehabilitation. An Analysis of Certain Provisions of Workmen's Compensation Laws showing their Relation to the Administration of Vocational Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons.* Bulletin No. 126. Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation Series No. 15. Washington, 1927. ix + 146 pp. 25 cents.

NEW YORK

Department of Labour. Bureau of Statistics and Information. *Compensation Statistics. Year ended 30 June 1927.* Special Bulletin No. 157. New York, 1928. 56 pp.

—— —— *Labour Law and Pertinent Provisions of the State Departments Law, Penal Law, Education Law, General Business Law and Domestic Relations Law. With Amendments, Additions and Annotations to 1 August 1928.* New York, 1928. 168 pp.

WEST VIRGINIA

Board of Education. *Report of State Board of Education. Two Years ending 30 June 1926.* Charleston, 1927. 334 pp.

The second part of the volume contains articles and reports on vocational education in West Virginia for the years 1924-1926, and an outline of plans for vocational education for a five-year period (1927-1932). These plans refer mainly to the following problems: general direction, agricultural education, trade and industrial education, home economics education, teacher training, etc.

The last part of the report deals with the civilian rehabilitation problem in West Virginia. The reader will find reports for the years 1924-1926, a special report on a survey of the blind, and a plan of administration and supervision of the rehabilitation programme of the State for the years 1927-1930.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Academy of Political Science. *Proceedings.* Vol. XIII, No. 1, June 1928. *Fact-Finding in Labour Disputes.* Edited by Parker Thomas Moon. New York, Columbia University. xii + 194 pp.

This volume reproduces a series of addresses and papers presented at the three sessions of the Semi-Annual Meeting of the Academy of Political Science held in the City of New York, 11 April 1928. The general topic of the meeting was fact-finding in labour disputes by Governmental or voluntary agencies, but other aspects of industrial relations were also discussed, including the use of injunctions and the rôle of the courts in labour disputes. The subject of trade unionism and employee representation plans was discussed from many different angles by representatives of capital, of management and of labour, and by distinguished economists. In the discussion on the wider subject of present needs in industry points considered were the rôle of insurance in promoting the common interests of capital and labour, the chief conclusions of the British Liberal Industrial Enquiry, rationalisation in industry, industrial arbitration, and " mutualism ", i.e. genuine co-operation between capital and labour.

Aftalion, Albert. *Monnaie et industrie.* Les grands problèmes de l'heure présente. Paris, Recueil Sirey, 1929. VII + 262 pp.

The reader will be glad to find in this work a number of important articles by Mr. Aftalion published, during 1927 and 1928, in various periodicals and dealing with monetary problems considered principally in their relation to industrial activity. Special mention may be made of the chapters devoted to stabilisation of prices, the influence of money control (*monnaie dirigée*) on periodical crises, and business forecasts.

All-Australian Trades Union Congress. *Official Report of the All-Australian Trades Union Congress held at Melbourne, 16-21 July 1928.* Melbourne, 1928.

Allgemeiner Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund. *Protokoll der Verhandlungen des 13. Kongresses der Gewerkschaften Deutschlands (3. Bundestag des Allgemeinen Deutschen Gewerkschaftbundes) abgehalten in Hamburg 3.-7. September 1928.* Berlin, 1928. 340 pp.

Altekar, A. S. *A History of Village Communities in Western India.* University of Bombay Economic Series No. V. Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press, 1927. XV + 144 pp.

Amalgamated Union of Building Trade Workers of Great Britain and Ireland. *Report of Fifth National Delegate Conference held at St. Anne's Hall on the 18th, 19th, 20th and 21st July 1928.* London. 206 pp.

Antonelli, Etienne. *Guide pratique des assurances sociales. Commentaire et texte complet de la loi du 5 avril 1928.* Bibliothèque technique. Paris, Payot, 1928. 229 pp. 20 frs.

Assekuranz-Jahrbuch. Band 47. Schriftleitung: Prof. S. LENGYEL. Vienna, Leipzig, Compassverlag, 1928. VIII + 604 pp.

Bacher, Isabella. *Die christlichen Gewerkschaften und ihre Stellung zum " Kapitalistischen Geist ".* Inaugural-Dissertation zur Erlangung der Doktorwürde der Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Köln. Cologne, Druckerei der Kölner Studentenburse, 1927. 100 pp.

Baker, Thomas S. *La terre du réalisme. L'esprit américain. Machinisme et standardisation. L'opinion publique américaine.* Dotation Carnegie pour la paix internationale. Publications de la conciliation internationale. Bulletin No. 1, 1928. Paris, 1928. 125 pp.

The European branch of the Carnegie Institute for International Peace gives in this pamphlet the text of lectures delivered in French in Paris, during March 1928, by Mr. Baker, President of the Carnegie Institute of Technology (Pittsburg). The lecturer analyses the principal problems which Americans are facing to-day and to which the great prosperity of the United States has given rise. He does not consider that, viewing the matter from a general standpoint, mechanisation and standardisation present any serious danger for the civilisation of the American people. High wages and short hours, in his opinion, provide sufficient compensation for monotony in industrial occupations. The vulnerable point, however, in American philosophy is perhaps, he says, " the illusion which consists in the belief

that progress is measurable only by the improvements wrought in what may be called the mechanical side of our existence."

Behringer, F. *Herkunft, Vorbildung und Berufsausbildung der Kaufmannslehrlinge.* Hamburg. 71 pp.

Bernard, René. *L'application pratique de la loi du 12 mars 1920 sur les syndicats professionnels.* Thèse pour le doctorat. Université de Paris. Faculté de droit. Paris, 1928. 140 pp.

In the first two chapters the author shows in what measure workers', employers' and agricultural organisations have derived practical advantages from the new prerogatives afforded them by the Act of 12 March 1920, from the point of view of their right to take legal action and their capacity to acquire and possess property and to enter into contracts. In the third chapter, the author considers the effects which the legal recognition of federations of unions — employers', workers' and agricultural unions — may have on the organisation of capital, labour and agricultural interests.

Bernège, Paulette. *Si les femmes faisaient les maisons.* Paris, "Mon chez moi", 1928. 58 pp.

An interesting and suggestive appeal for the rationalisation of workers' dwellings with due regard to the requirements of domestic work and the provision of modern conveniences.

Bertheau. *25 Jahre Deutsches Arbeitsschutz-Museum, 1903-1928.* Mit einem Geleitwort von Dr. Geib. Berlin, 1928. 95 pp.

Beveridge, Sir William H. *British Food Control.* Economic and Social History of the World War. British Series. Publications of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Division of Economics and History. London, Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press; New Haven, Yale University Press, 1928. xx + 447 pp.

This review of British food control by the Director of the London School of Economics and Political Science, formerly Permanent Secretary to the Ministry of Food, covers a stretch of nearly seven years, beginning with the entry of Great Britain into the world war, 4 August 1914, and ending with the formal demise of the Ministry of Food, 31 March 1921. It is an interesting record of an administrative experiment in the control of supplies (imports and home produce), the regulation of prices, rationing and distribution, and methods of enforcement. In the last chapter, the author, in the light of the experience acquired, weighs the merits and disadvantages of food control or food trading as a normal function of the State. He concludes that little gain either to consumer or producer would accrue from public regulation of food supply in peace time.

In addition to a statistical appendix the volume includes a number of tables in the text and a list of statistical tables available for reference in the library of the Board of Trade.

Blijdenstein, Elisabeth. *Die Katholischen Holländischen Gewerkschaften in ihrer Eigenart.* Dissertation zur Erlangung der Doktorwürde der Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Köln. Cologne, Emil Pilgram, 1927. 50 pp.

Bosch Kemper, M. J. de. *Proeve tot vaststelling van een volgorde der conjunctuur phasen tusschen een aantal gegevens, die mogelijk zouden kunnen dienen als indices voor de Nederlandsche conjunctuur. Essai d'établissement d'une succession dans les phases de certaines courbes qui pourraient servir d'indices de la situation économique des Pays-Bas.* Overdruck van het Bijvoegsel van de *Sociaal-economische Kroniek* van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek over het 3e kwartaal 1927. 16 pp.

British Social Hygiene Council. *Imperial Social Hygiene Congress, 3-7 October 1927. Proceedings.* London. 313 pp.

In the discussions on various problems connected with the prevention of venereal disease, a great deal of attention was devoted to the question of seamen's welfare in ports. Among the six interesting papers submitted relating to seamen,

special mention may be made of one contributed by Dr. Carozzi, chief of the Industrial Health Section in the International Labour Office, dealing with " Social Insurance of Seamen and the International Labour Office ", which summarises the work accomplished by the Office in this connection.

Chalupny, Dr. E. *Sistema solsiologii (v narisi). Précis du système de sociologie.* Institut Ukrainien de Sociologie à Prague. Prague, 1927. 55 pp.

Mr. Chalupny, author of the first sociological treatise written in Czech, gives in this brochure, prepared at the request of the Ukrainian Institute of Sociology in Prague, a summary of the principal ideas developed in his works.

Chaudhuri, Kshitish Chandra. *The History and Economics of the Land System in Bengal.* Foreword by Sir P. C. Ray, Calcutta, The Bool Company, 1927. xix + 148 pp.

Clapp, Mary A., and Strong, Mabel A. *The School and the Working Child. Being a Study of the Administration of Certain Laws pertaining to the Children in Industry by Fifty School Departments of Massachusetts.* Boston, Massachusetts Child Labour Committee, 1928. x + 226 pp.

The study shows how the child labour laws in Massachusetts are administered by the local school authorities. It is concerned with two codes of laws ; the first affords protection to children and young persons by the requirement of working certificates, by limiting hours and by prohibiting employment in dangerous occupations ; the second regulates compulsory education and provides for continuation schools which working children must attend. The importance of the working certificate system and its administration is insisted on. The aim of this system is to help the child to secure such opportunities for development as best suit his special physical and mental opportunities or limitations. When a child reaches a certain age and grade he has the right to leave school, but the question of whether he ought to leave is left open. The able administrator, though he can exercise no compulsion, may bring influence to bear to keep the child at school or to direct him towards employment suited to his abilities. Some administrators do this ; others, apparently in a majority, conscientiously carry out the letter of the law but neglect its spirit. A broader interpretation is urged in order that each child who leaves school may be assured, not only of perfunctory protection, but of positive aid.

Confederazione Generale enti Autarchici. *Relazione della Commissione internazionale per la statistica delle abitazioni, Monaco di Baviera, Maggio 1928.* Rome. 11 pp.

Deutscher Ausschuss für Technisches Schulwesen und Reichsbund Deutscher Technik. *Technikvoran. Jahrbuch mit Kalender für die Jugend, 1929.* Berlin, 1928. 200 pp.

De Vlaemynck, E. *L'assurance-chômage.* Les " Cahiers " de la Commission syndicale de Belgique, No. 10, October 1928. 60 pp.

An able and well-documented work on the present organisation of unemployment insurance in Belgium with a short historical sketch, some indications on the outlook for the future, and some references to the international situation.

De Werkgevers en de Openbare Arbeidsmiddeling. Rapport over een aan het Einde 1927 Ingesteld Onderzoek naar het Oordeel van de Werkgevers over de Openbare Arbeidsbemiddeling en het Gebruik dat zij daarvan maken. Haarlem. 28 pp.

This report contains the results of an enquiry undertaken at the end of 1927 with a view to ascertaining the opinions of employers in the Netherlands with regard to public employment exchanges and the use they make of them. The report was analysed in *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XXVIII, No. 12, p. 368.

Döring, Dr. Hermann. *Die Luftversicherung. Entwicklung, Recht und Technik.* Veröffentlichungen des Deutschen Vereins für Versicherungs-Wissenschaft. Herausgegeben von Dr. Alfred Manes. Heft XLII. Berlin, E. S. Mittler and Sohn, 1928. 232 pp.

Economic Problems in Europe To-day. Edited by W. Henderson PRINGLE, M.A., LL.B. With an Introduction by Sir Charles Grant ROBERTSON, C.V.O., M.A., LL.D. London, A. and C. Black, 1928. XI + 146 pp. 5s.

Ferenczi, Imre. *Die Wanderungsstatistik und die Internationale Arbeitsorganisation.* Abdruck aus *Allgemeines Statistisches Archiv.* Organ der Deutschen Statistischen Gesellschaft. Begründet von Georg von MAYR. Herausgegeben von Dr. Friedrich ZAHN. 18. Band. Jena, Gustav Fischer, 1928. Pp. 301-313.

This is a detailed survey of the efforts of the International Labour Organisation for the improvement of migration statistics. The results obtained and the problems still to be solved are shown.

Festschrift zum 25-jährigen Bestehen des Konsumvereins Wohlfahrt e.G. m.b.H. Essen-Altenessen, 1903-1928. 62 pp., illustr.

Foa, Bruno. *Influenze monetarie sulla distribuzione della ricchezze. La inflazione.* Milan, Albrighi, Segati and Co., 1927. 146 pp. 15 lire.

The author considers the influence of monetary inflation on the distribution of wealth and the transfer of purchasing power from one class to another, and the effects on industrial activity, trade, agriculture and landed property, speculation in stocks, and wages and salaries during recent years. Numerous references are made to the " Enquiry into Production " carried out by the International Labour Office.

Frank, Dr. Walter. *Hofprediger Adolf Stoecker und die christlichsoziale Bewegung.* Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1928. 450 pp.

General Federation of Trade Unions. *Proceedings and Reports from July 1927 to June 1928.* London, 1928.

Geschäftsstelle der deutschen Land- und Forstwirtschaft in Prag. *Antrag auf Abänderung einiger Bestimmungen des Gesetzes vom 9. Oktober 1924, Slg. d. G. u. B. Nr. 221, betreffend die Versicherung der Arbeitnehmer für den Fall der Krankheit, der Invalidität und des Alters.* Prague, 1927. 72 pp.

Gewerkschaftskommission Deutschösterreichs. *Bericht der Gewerkschaftskommission an den 10. österreichischen Gewerkschaftskongress, Wien, Juni 1928. Protokoll des 10. österreichischen (des 3. deutschösterreichischen) Gewerkschaftskongresses abgehalten vom 18. bis 22. Juni 1928 in Wien.* Vienna, 1928. IV + 490 pp.

Graziadei, Antonio. *Capitale e salari.* Milan, Casa Editrice Monanni. 154 pp.

Grundriss der Sozialökonomik. VIII. Abteilung. *Aussenhandel und Aussenhandelspolitik.* (*Die internationalen Wirtschaftsbeziehungen.*) Edited by Franz EULENBURG. Tubingen, J. C. B. Mohr (Paul Siebeck), 1929. XIII + 327 pp. 18 marks ; bound, 21.50 marks.

Guinchard, J. *Befolkningsutvecklingen och dess konsekvenser.* Reprinted from *Svensk Tidsskrift.* Stockholm, 1928. 19 pp.

A study of the demographic development in Sweden and its economic consequences, by the Director of the Stockholm Municipal Statistical Office.

Hansen, K. A. *Forebyggelse af Ulykkestilfaelde under Arbejde.* Reprinted from *Socialt Tidsskrift,* official organ of the Ministries of the Interior and of Public Health. Copenhagen, Harald Gensen, 1928. 42 pp.

Summary of Danish legislation relating to the prevention of industrial accidents.

Hausknecht-Derendinger, E. *Das Dienstbotenproblem.* Zurich, Pro Juventute, 1928. 122 pp.

Heyde, Dr. Ludwig. *Rationalisierung und Arbeiterschaft.* Sonderabdruck aus *Strukturwandlungen der Deutschen Volkswirtschaft,* pp. 278-294. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing.

Hunerwadel, Dr. Hans. *Die Leistungen der anerkannten Krankenkassen.* Fragen der Sozialversicherung. Herausgegeben vom Konkordat der Schweizerischen Krankenkassen. Heft 5. Berne, 1928. 48 pp.

Industrial Welfare Society. *Ninth Annual Lecture Conference on Industrial Welfare, Balliol College, Oxford, 7-11 September 1928.* London, 1928. 114 pp. 2s. 6d.

Information Bureau on Women's Work. *Industrial Accidents and Ohio's Women Workers.* Toledo, Ohio, 1928. 19 pp.

Jaurès, Jean. *Pages choisies.* New edition with introduction and notes by Paul Desanges and Luc Muriga. Paris, Editions Rieder, 1928. 286 pp. 15 frs.

In this collection of extracts from the writings and speeches of Jean Jaurès the editors have devoted special attention to matter hitherto unpublished or difficult to procure.

Jeremić, Dusan M. *O problemu emigracije i imigracije i o medunarodnim sporazumima za njegovo uredenje.* Belgrade, Stampa Tucovic, 1928. 80 pp.

Joseph-Lussheimer, Emmy. *Zur Theorie der Berufswahl unter Benutzung der Berufswahltatsachen der Abiturienten einer Grosstadt.* Schriften zur Psychologie der Berufseignung und des Wirtschaftslebens herausgegeben von Otto Lipmann und William Stern. Heft 35. Leipzig, Johann Barth, 1928. 80 pp.

Krejci, Dr. Dobroslav. *La statistique agricole en Tchécoslovaquie.* Institut International d'Agriculture. Service de la Statistique Générale. L'organisation de la statistique agricole dans les divers pays. No. 2. Rome, 1928. 138 pp.

Kresta, Dr. Vaclav. *Brazilie. Pouceni pro ceskoslovenske vystehovalce.* Masarykova Akademie Prácè. Prague, 1928. 79 pp.

Dr. Kresta, Czechoslovak Consul at Santos, describes conditions in Brazil for the information of prospective Czechoslovak emigrants.

Kuczynski, Jürgen. *Löhne und Konjunktur in Amerika.* Berlin, Verlag der Finanzpolitischen Korrespondenz, 1928. 28 pp.

This study reproduces and supplements data on wages in the United States, published by the American Federation of Labour in its Research series, and prepared by the author and a collaborator (Miss Steinfeld).

Kruger, Hans, and Baade, Fritz. *Sozialdemokratische Agrarpolitik. Erläuterungen zum sozialdemokratischen Agrarprogramm.* Berlin, J. H. W: Dietz. 99 pp.

Kussner, Karl. *Englische Volksbildungsarbeit.* Stuttgart, Verlag Silberburg, 1927. 155 pp.

Labbé, E. *Les loisirs ouvriers.* Cercle Parisien de la Ligue française de l'Enseignement. Paris, 1928. 16 pp.

In this communication made to the forty-fourth Congress of the French Educational League, held at Lille, 16 June 1928, the General Director of Technical Education draws attention to the discussion on the question of workers' spare time at the Sixth Session of the International Labour Conference (Geneva, 1924), "the most striking international attempt made to solve the problem". He reviews the endeavours made in this connection in each country, and emphasises the danger of dispersion of effort.

Landwirtschaftskammer für die Provinz Sachsen. *Die Landarbeiterfrage in der Provinz Sachsen.* Heft 53. Halle, 1928. 101 pp.

The Chamber of Agriculture for the Province of Saxony has published a study on the agricultural labour problem in that Province. This study notes a serious deficiency in the labour supply, which has sometimes resulted in crops not being harvested. Attempts have been made to overcome the deficiency in the labour supply by means of family labour.

The Chamber mentions causes of rural exodus and emphasises the fact that it is due not so much to the attractiveness of the town, as to the hardness of agricultural work which repels workers.

An annex to the study contains statements from many local societies and agricultural schools, which add much valuable information to this study.

Lauber, Dr. Werner. *Der Schutz der Berufskrankheiten in der Schweiz.* Beiträge zur schweizerischen Verwaltungskunde. Heft 27. Herausgegeben von der Schweizerischen Staatsschreiber-Konferenz. Zurich, Institut Orell Füssli, 1927. 53 pp.

Study on Swiss legislation relating to workmen's compensation for occupational diseases. The first chapter deals with employers' liabilities, which in Switzerland extended to occupational diseases as early as 1877. The author devotes the second chapter to sickness insurance, which has been substituted for the liability of the employer, and in particular, to workmen's compensation for occupational diseases and the attitude of the Swiss Government to the question. In a concluding chapter Dr. Lauber expresses the hope that workmen's compensation for occupational diseases will in future be assimilated to that for industrial accidents.

—— *Praxis des sozialen Unfallversicherungsrechts der Schweiz.* Berne, Hans Huber, 1928. 375 pp.

A valuable guide to the administration of Swiss law on accident insurance. The work — published on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of the coming into force of the Federal Act of 13 June 1911 on compulsory insurance against accidents (Part II), which became operative as from 1 April 1918 — contains a methodical review of decisions rendered by the Federal Insurance Court, of which the author is registrar. The value of the work as a reference book is increased by the fact that it includes, arranged in chronological order, all the judgments which are recognised as embodying principles of importance. A series of studies and reports on problems connected with compulsory insurance against accidents follows.

Finally, a convenient index of the questions raised by the decisions and explanatory statements in each case facilitates research.

Leipart, Theodor, and Erdmann, Lothar. *Arbeiterbildung und Volksbildung.* Berlin, Verlagsgesellschaft des Allgemeinen Deutschen Gewerkschaftsbundes, 1928. 64 pp.

Lorange, O. *Oversikt over Lov om arbeiderbeskyttelse i industrielle virksomheter av 18 september 1915 med endringer og tilleggslover av 11 juli 1919 og 29 mai 1925.* Oslo, H. Aschehoug and Co., 1928. 57 pp.

Survey of the Norwegian Act on labour protection in industrial undertakings, with amendments of 11 July 1919 and 29 May 1925.

Meakin, Walter. *The New Industrial Revolution. A Study for the General Reader of Rationalisation and Post-War Tendencies of Capitalism and Labour.* London, Victor Gollancz, 1928. 284 pp. 9s.

The effects of rationalisation on modern industry are likely to prove as far-reaching as those of the industrial revolution during the nineteenth century, if the recent remarkable restoration of prosperity in Germany, described by Dr. Meakin, is any criterion of the results to be expected from its wider application. Very clearly and very thoroughly the author explains the scope and methods of Germany's reorganisation in her various industries — in particular, the coal, iron and steel, and chemical industries — and in agriculture. Then, in the light of these events, he examines the situation in the depressed industries in Great Britain, with special reference to the coal industry, and discusses the constructive measures he holds to be essential to a solution of the problem. Fundamental issues of labour policy in relation to the capitalist system are considered in later chapters, which deal with Labour's attitude to rationalisation, the effect of rationalisation on unemployment, on prices and wages, and on trade expansion. The question of industrial centralisation (employers' combines and trusts) is discussed in its national and international aspects. Finally, the author deals with German trade union policy and the changes which must be looked for in the relations between employers and workers wherever rational methods on a large scale are introduced.

The case for rationalisation is carefully argued throughout, and this book should help to clear up much confusion of thought on the subject. "The whole question", the author points out, "must be approached from the viewpoint of the well-being of industry and the nation as a whole, rather than from the narrow outlook of purely sectional interests."

Meyer, Hakon. *Veier, mal og midler. Betraktninger over arbeiderbevegelsen.* Oslo, 1927. 272 pp.

A study of Communism, its aims and methods, by the secretary of the Parliamentary group of the Norwegian Labour Party, which is affiliated neither to the Socialist nor to the Communist International. One of the chapters of the book contains monographs on the labour movement in Italy, Switzerland, Germany, Austria and Poland.

National Conference of Social Work, *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work at the Fifty-fifth Annual Session held in Memphis, Tennessee, 2-9 May 1928.* Chicago, Chicago University Press, 1928. VI + 670 pp.

While most of the reports and papers reproduced in this volume of Proceedings relate to American conditions, a certain number of questions of international concern are also treated. It is of interest to note that a member of the staff of the International Labour Office, Mr. D. Christie TAIT, spoke at the Migration Division meetings on "The World Movement of People", and that Miss Julia LATHROP, in her address on "The Imperatives of International Relations: Social Implications", makes favourable reference to the International Labour Office in relation to its work on the utilisation of leisure.

A striking feature of this meeting of the National Conference of Social Work was its preoccupation with conditions in the Southern States and the impact of white and coloured labour. Among the papers submitted may be mentioned those dealing with: "Industrial Problems of the New South: the Southern Mill Village"; "The New Industrial South"; "The Negro Industrialist: the Effect of Changing Economic Conditions upon the Living Standard of Negroes".

The volume is a mine of information on recent tendencies of social work in the United States.

Northcott, Clarence H., Sheldon, Oliver, Wardropper, J. W., and Urwick, L. *Factory Organisation.* With a Foreword by Professor J. H. JONES, M.A. Pitman's Applied Economics Series. London, Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, 1928. XI + 252 pp. 7s. 6d.

A collection of articles on various aspects of modern factory management. The contributions of the various authors are as follows: Introduction, and "The Principles and Practice of Industrial Relations", by Clarence H. NORTHCOTT; "The Organisation of Business Control", by Oliver SHELDON; "The Organisation of Production" and "Records and Costing", by J. W. WARDROPPER"; "Marketing and Advertising" and "Selling and Transport", by L. URWICK. A bibliography and a short index are also given.

Nyström, Bertil. *Magra iakttagelser rörande byggnads- och bostadsförhallandena i Förenta Staterna.* Berättelse över en studieresa. Reprinted from *Sociala Meddelanden*, 1928. Stockholm, 1928. 17 pp.

A report on a visit to the United States to study housing conditions, made by the head of the special research section of the Swedish Social Board.

Office National d'Hygiène sociale. *Le cinématographe au service de l'hygiène sociale. Catalogue des films de propagande d'hygiène sociale.* Paris. 63 pp.

Pergolesi, Ferruccio. *Lineamenti fondamentali del diritto del lavoro.* Estratto dalla *Rassegna Bibliografica delle Scienze Giuridiche*, Anno III, Fasc. II. Salerno, 1928. 36 pp.

The author of this short but valuable study deals with fundamental problems of labour law, in particular with the codification of labour laws, the special structure of this new branch of legislation, its scope, object, definition and origin.

Perlman, Selig. *A Theory of the Labour Movement.* New York, The Macmillan Co., 1928. XII + 321 pp.

In the first part of his book Mr. Perlman gives a survey of the historical development of the labour movement in Russia, the United States, Germany and Great Britain, in order to show the grounds on which he bases his theory of the labour movement, which is dealt with in Part II. Three basic factors, the author says, emerge in any modern labour situation: "first, the resistance power of capitalism, determined by its own historical development; second, the degree of dominance

over the labour movements by the intellectuals' 'mentality', which regularly underestimates capitalism's resistance power and overestimates labour's will to radical change; and, third, the degree of maturity of a trade union 'mentality'." As a result of further analysis and generalisation, the goal of "organic" labour crystallises out as "communism of opportunity", the intellectuals divide into types distinguishable as "ethical", "efficiency" and "determinist revolutionary", while capitalism, "instead of being a sheer material phenomenon", becomes the "effective will to power" of the capitalist class.

Piccard, Dr. P. *Lebenserwartungs-, Barwert- und Rententafeln zur Verwendung im Versicherungs- und Haftpflichtrecht, Obligationen-, Familien- und Erbrecht, Steuerrecht usw.* Zweite, revidierte und vermehrte Auflage auf neuer statistischer Grundlage. Berne, Hans Huber, 1928. 60 pp.

Pirtle, T. L. *History of the Dairy Industry.* Chicago, Mojonnier Bros. Company, 1926. 645 pp., illustr.

This work contains data collected by the author relating to the dairy industry in 13 countries. It is well supplied with statistics of cattle, production, imports and exports of dairy produce, etc.

Pizzoli, Dr. Ugo. *L'orientamento scolastico professionale.* II edizione. Biblioteca dell' Ente Nazionale Italiano per l'Organizzazione Scientifica del Lavoro. Serie I. No. 2. Rome, 1927. IX + 124 pp.

Pribram, Dr. Karl. *Die weltwirtschaftliche Lage im Spiegel des Schrifttums der Weltwirtschaftskonferenz.* Sonderabdruck Weltwirtschaftliches Archiv. 26. Band. Heft 2. Herausgegeben von Dr. Bernhard HARMS. Jena, Gustav Fischer, 1927. Pp. 306-438.

Price, M. Philips. *The Economic Problems of Europe, Pre-War and After.* Foreword by the Rt. Hon. Sidney WEBB, M.P. London, George Allen and Unwin, 1928. 218 pp.

Mr. Price, who remarks in the preface to this book that he has been impressed by the increasing internationalism of world economy, endeavours to trace the connection between the political rearrangements since the war and the material needs of society, the markets of the industrialist, the wages of the workmen, and the loans of the banks.

The first five chapters are devoted to a review of post-war economy, and in the succeeding chapters Mr. Price discusses such questions as Europe's need for colonial markets and new investment areas, the desire to control raw materials, and the reparations and war debt problems. Mr. Price considers that the remedy for economic depression is to be found in the increasing purchasing power of the masses, a solution which must depend on the supply and export of American and European capital.

Rabinovitch, G. S. *Le condizioni di lavoro nella pesca d'Islanda.* Estratto da *Bollettino di pesco, di piscicoltura e di idrobiologia*, Anno IV. Fascicolo II. Rome, A. Manuzio, 1928. 22 pp.

Rager, Dr. Fritz. *Wer kann die Altersfürsorgerente in Oesterreich beziehen?* Vienna, Rudolf Kamus und Co., 1928. 66 pp.

Reichsknappschaftsverein. *Vierter Geschäftsbericht des Reichsknappschaftsverein in Berlin für das Jahr 1927.* 137 pp.

Richter, Dr. Lutz. *Zugehörigkeit oder Nichtzugehörigkeit von Gärtnereibetrieben zum Gewerbe.* Berlin, Gärtnerische Verlagsgesellschaft, 1928. 32 pp.

Rowe, J. W. F. *Wages in Practice and Theory.* Studies in Economics and Political Science. Edited by the Director of the London School of Economics and Political Science. No. 94 in the series of Monographs by writers connected with the London School of Economics and Political Science. London, George Routledge and Sons, 1928. x + 277 pp. 12s. 6d.

The statistical investigations which form the basis of this book were originally undertaken, we are told, in the hope that a detailed study of wages in practice

might point the way to a theory of wages more realistic than the theories now current in economic literature. This hope was not realised, partly because the review of a sufficient number of industries would involve more study than a single individual can ordinarily undertake, and partly because of the inadequacy of the data available. Nevertheless the author reaches certain conclusions in this book which must be taken into consideration in any revision of wage theory.

Part I consists of a study of wage movements during the forty years 1886-1926 in five important British industries, viz., building, cotton, engineering, coal-mining and railway service. The relations between wages in the different industries and between those of skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled workers within each industry are examined. Emphasis is laid on the importance of studying changes in skill in each occupation when making wage comparisons over a number of years.

A study of collective bargaining in Great Britain during the last forty years forms the subject of Part II. Attention is called to the development of national agreements, standardisation of wage rates, the breakdown of custom and the adoption of new principles in wage fixing. Stress is laid on the great increase in the bargaining power of trade unions.

In Part III the author examines wage theories in the light of conclusions drawn from the practical surveys of his earlier chapters. He considers that factors peculiar to each industry have an influence which is not so completely submerged as existing wage theories are apt to imply ; he doubts whether the conception of a general rate of wages is not, at least under modern conditions, a mere theoretical abstraction. But his main concern is to insist that, in any revision of wage theory, full consideration should be given to the rise to power of trade unionism with all this implies. He wishes to ensure that collective bargaining shall find the place and status in wage theory to which it is entitled, in view of developments during the last forty years. He has a strong belief in the doctrine of high wages. He holds the view that human intervention to raise wages is not necessarily brought to nought by the play of natural economic forces, and that existing wage theory is wrong in asserting or implying the opposite. A powerful trade union to-day can clearly maintain wages, despite considerable unemployment, for a period sufficiently long to stimulate invention and improved organisation ; the ultimate result will quite possibly be such a lowering of production costs, and consequent increase in demand, as will ensure the unemployed being reabsorbed. In order to provide this stimulus to improved production, trade unions should consciously try to keep wages not in exact adjustment with, but a trifle above, the current marginal productivity rates. The permanent existence of a certain amount of unemployment which this would involve should not be regarded as a serious misfortune, still less as a disease, but rather as a mark of progress towards higher productivity and wages, and at the same time as the price of such progress. A forward wage policy on these lines implies the abandonment of restrictions on production and on improved methods which trade unions have sometimes imposed in the past, and a willingness on their part to co-operate with capital in improving the technique and organisation of production.

Sändig, J. *Der Versicherungspool. Sein Wesen und seine wirtschaftliche Bedeutung.* Leipzig, Deutscher Verlag, 1927. 127 pp.

Schuckmann, Dr. Walther. *Steine, Erden und Baustoffe.* Bauabend. Schriften für das Jungvolk vom Bau Nr. 5. Herausgegeben vom Deutschen Baugewerksbund. Hamburg, 1928. 150 pp.

Silvestre, C. *Annuaire de l'agriculture et des associations agricoles, 1928.* Lyon, Publications Silvestre, 1928. IX + 2376 pp.

Mr. Silvestre's yearbook of agriculture and agricultural associations has now reached its twenty-first edition. The 1928 issue of this voluminous work is in three parts. The first, devoted to " Agriculture, Associations and Legislation ", describes the legal status of the various agricultural associations in France (agricultural societies, agricultural committees, unions, agricultural workers' organisations, agricultural insurance societies, and agricultural co-operative societies) ; it also gives specimen rules and explains the respective character and objects of these associations.

The second part describes the composition and functions of the services of the

Ministry of Agriculture and of the Academy of Agriculture, and the organisation of agriculture in the different Departments of France. The third part is devoted to agricultural producers and their assistants.

Société suisse des Commerçants. *Pour les employés de commerce et de bureau. I. La femme dans les professions commerciales et les bureaux. II. Les groupes d'employées dans la Société des commerçants.* Zurich, Neuchâtel. 78 pp.

Describes the position and part played by women employed in commerce and in offices, their wages and working conditions. The second part of the book is devoted to the organisation and activities of this class of workers in the various branches of the Swiss Society of Commercial Employees.

Steiger, Dr. R. Alw. *Neue Wege der technischen Unfallverhütung erläutert an praktischen Beispielen. Die Schutzbrille. Der Kehlmaschinenschutz.* Zurich, 1928. 154 pp.

Steiner, Dr. Ernst, and Knüsel, Dr. Otto. *Die Bestimmung des Grades der dauernden Erwerbsunfähigkeit bei Augenverletzungen zufolge Unfalls mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Praxis des Eidg. Versicherungsgerichts.* Separatabdruck aus der *Schweizerischen Zeitschrift für Unfallmedizin und Berufskrankheiten.* Berne, Hans Huber. 28 pp. 1.50 mks. or 1.80 frs.

Steinitz, Leopold. *Die gemeinwirtschaftlichen Anstalten in Oesterreich. Ein Beitrag zum Studium des Aufbaues der neueren sozialen Wirtschaftsgebilde.* Thèse présentée à la faculté des sciences économiques et sociales de l'Université de Genève. Geneva, 1927. XIV + 260 pp.

The " collective industrial undertakings " in Austria described by Mr. Steinitz are an interesting experiment in practical Socialism. They are founded partly on ideas propounded by English guild Socialism and partly on principles of early Russian Bolshevism. Their organisation and activities are regulated by an Act of 29 July 1919. The author distinguishes two groups of undertakings: (1) those supported by organised consumers, which represent a form of co-operative enterprise, and (2) those without such support. The latter are chiefly former military establishments now reorganised for peace-time production.

The last chapter is devoted to a discussion of the problems of " socialisation " and of the practical results obtained in Austria.

Thiele, Ernest. *Rapport sur l'orientation professionnelle et la réglementation de l'accès à la profession d'employé.* Colmar, Fédération internationale des Syndicats chrétiens d'Employés. 57 pp.

The third Congress of the International Federation of Christian Salaried Employees' Trade Unions, held at Amsterdam 9-10 June 1927, adopted resolutions demanding that an enquiry be undertaken by the Federation in every country into legislative or other measures and official or private arrangements framed with the object of establishing full or partial control over admission to employment as a salaried worker. In pursuance of these resolutions the Secretariat of the Federation drew up two questionnaires to be sent to the affiliated organisations. The above report gives the text of these questionnaires, the replies received from the organisations and the documents, furnished by them, which were used in the preparation of Mr. Thiele's report.

The first part of the report deals with vocational guidance, and the second with the regulation of access to employment in the capacity of salaried employee. The conclusions drawn point to the need of regulating apprenticeship with a view to securing a general practical training for all prospective salaried employees, and compulsory attendance at technical continuation classes to be held during normal working hours. In addition, the unions of Christian salaried employees demand that the special qualifications of employees who have specialised in any branch of commercial or technical activity should receive recognition.

Tobler, Theodor. *Produktion und Wirtschaft im Zeichen einer neuen Zeit.* Vorgetragen im Sozial-Institut der Tschechoslowakischen Republik Prag. Berne, Hans Huber, 1928. 47 pp. 1.25 fr.

Address delivered by Mr. Tobler at the Czechoslovak Social Institute. The author, as a big chocolate manufacturer, occupies a prominent position in world

industry. He describes his conception of the rôle of the producer, whose aim, he says, should be to serve the general interest.

Trgpvacke i Obrtnicke Komore u Zagrebu. *Izvjestaj Trgovacke i Obrtnicke Komore u Zagrebu za Codinu 1927.* Zagreb, 1928.

Udgivet af Andelsudvalget. *Andelsstaevnet i Ryslinge. Referat af Foredrag og Ordskifte ved Staevnet for Andelsfolk paa Ryslings Hojskole, 24-27 Oktober 1926.* Aarhaus, De Forenede, 1927. 144 pp.

Proceedings of the Co-operative Congress held at Ryslinge, 24-27 October 1926.

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Verbond van Nederlandsche Werkgevers. *Tweede Verslag, Juli 1927-Juli 1928.* The Hague, 1928. 172 pp.

Annual report of the Federation of Dutch Employers for 1927-1928.

Vlcek, A. *Budouci Kolonie v Rusku.* Masarykova Akademie Práce. Prague, 1928. 80 pp.

This pamphlet examines the possibilities of settlement of Czechoslovak emigrants in Russia.

Watkins, Ralph J. *Ohio Employment Studies.* Ohio State University Studies· Bureau of Business Research Monographs No. 7. Colombus, Ohio State University Press, 1927. VII + 65 pp. 50 cents.

The data contained in this study are designed to supply measurements of the seasonal and cyclical variations in employment in selected significant industries in Ohio. Employment series comparable since January 1922 are given for foundry and machine shops, steel works and rolling mills, blast furnaces, the iron and steel group and the construction industry. A composite index based on employment in the iron and steel and construction industries (which together represent approximately one-third of the industrial purchasing power of the State) is also given and it is claimed that this index affords a reliable indication of movements in general industrial purchasing power in the State.

Wiederaufbau und Wirken der Deutschen Sozialversicherung. Herausgegeben von der Zeitschrift *Die Reichsversicherung.* Munich, Rechts- und Wirtschafts-Verlag, 1928. 165 pp.

Workers' Educational Association. *Twenty-fifth Annual Report for the Year ended 31 May 1928.* London. 64 pp.

Zaalberg, C. J. P., De Monchy, E. P., Romeyn, Dr. H. J., Posthuma, Dr. F. E., Methorst, Dr. H. W. *The Netherlands and the World War.* Studies in the War History of a Neutral. Vol. II. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Division of Economics and History. Economic and Social History of the World War. Netherlands Series. New Haven, Yale University Press ; London, Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press, 1928. XVI + 371 pp.

A good general idea of conditions in the Netherlands during the war is conveyed through the five studies published in this volume. They deal with the following subjects : " The Manufacturing Industry ", by Mr. ZAALBERG; " Commerce and Navigation ", by Mr. DE MONCHY; " The Housing Problem ", by Mr. ROMEYN; " Food Supply and Agriculture ", by Dr. POSTHUMA; " The Cost of Living, Prices and Wages ", by Dr. METHORST.

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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

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General Principles of an International Convention on the Conditions and Contracts of Employment of Foreign Workers: I

by

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Among the essential duties entrusted to the International Labour Organisation by the Peace Conference are those of guaranteeing the equitable economic treatment of all workers, national and foreign, lawfully resident in a country, and protecting the interests of workers when employed in countries other than their own.

Since the signature of the Treaties of Peace, foreign workers have constantly been the subject of discussion both in the International Labour Office, and among Governments and the persons directly interested. Thousands of contracts of employment, hundreds of laws, and dozens of treaties have been drawn up to fix these conditions; employers and workers, Governments and private organisations, have held meetings without number to examine these problems; and yet it cannot be said that a completely satisfactory solution has so far been reached.

The fact is that resolutions have in themselves no executory force, that contracts remain individual, that laws have no force beyond national frontiers, that bilateral treaties establish relations only between the two contracting parties; and that none of these methods can produce that universal agreement which is indispensable for the general acceptance of the solution. It is therefore being more and more often urged that the International Labour Organisation should reinforce the innumerable provisions already to be found in contracts, laws, and treaties by an International Convention establishing the general principles to be applied in this question by common agreement between the Governments, the workers, and the employers, and should replace the existing state of anarchy and uncertainty by an equitable and general system for all foreign workers.

To construct a complete corpus of the general law relating to foreign workers will be a tremendous task that cannot possibly be accomplished by a single Convention. But this difficulty, and the

consequent limitations, should not be allowed to hamper the preliminary work or research on the general principles of these regulations.

The study of which the first part is given here describes the many important views already expressed by Governments and individuals on this formerly much controverted subject. It shows that the multitude of suggested solutions already display a consensus of opinion on many points. From this comparison of documents and the conclusions to be drawn from them it will be easy for those who are interested in the question, and for those especially to whom it is of considerable practical importance, to push forward their search for the lines on which a satisfactory and possible solution of these weighty problems may be found to-day.

Historical Survey

THE regulation of the conditions of employment of foreign workers has long attracted the attention of Governments and politicians. It has become particularly urgent during the last few years, and in various ways attempts have been made to find a satisfactory international solution of the problem.

At the beginning of the twentieth century the formation of the International Association for Labour Legislation was more especially brought about by the desire to establish equitable conditions of employment for workers outside their own country, and one of the first subjects of discussion at its meetings was that of the equality of treatment of national and foreign workers as regards insurance. These discussions soon led to the preparation by the Governments of a first series of bilateral treaties on equality and reciprocity as regards insurance and protection. The treatment of foreign workers in the field of social insurance and the conclusion of an international convention on this matter were also the subject of several general discussions in the Association itself, but no formal proposal had yet been put forward before the war.

During the difficult years of the war, when the advocates of international social reform and international ideas were forced to replace action by reflection, the idea of an official international organisation for the protection of national and foreign workers speedily ripened among sociologists in both groups of belligerents. Their reflections soon bore fruit in energetic action in all countries, and led to an agreement in favour of the creation of an International Labour Organisation by the Treaties of Peace.

The fundamental principles that this Organisation was to uphold included the need of guaranteeing equitable economic

treatment for all national and foreign workers lawfully resident in a country. This principle was not destined to remain a sterile affirmation, as will appear from the action at once taken by the International Labour Conference. At its First Session at Washington in 1919 it adopted Recommendations on the conditions of recruiting of foreign workers and on reciprocity of treatment of national and foreign workers in respect of labour protection and the right of association. But these decisions, being embodied in Recommendations couched in general and somewhat vague terms, merely indicated certain principles without proposing formal resolutions or definite texts. When, therefore, a few months later, in 1921, the International Emigration Commission met at the International Labour Office, it paid special attention to the problems of the conditions of employment of foreign workers. The serious difficulties involved and the manifold aspects of the problem were among the decisive reasons why this Commission so strongly insisted on the creation of a board of experts to assist the competent services of the International Labour Office in studying the international co-ordination of migration laws and the problems affecting foreign workers.

Without waiting for this work of integral co-ordination to be carried out, several Governments took steps for the conclusion of treaties defining the relations between the two countries concerned so far as these affect workers. Thus was evolved a new category of bilateral treaties : labour and emigration treaties to settle all questions between two countries relating to the recruiting of labour abroad and the conditions and contracts of employment of foreign workers. A large number of these labour and emigration treaties, of a kind unknown before the war, have thus been concluded. Among others may be mentioned those negotiated by France with Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Italy, and Poland ; by Italy with Albania, Brazil, France, and Luxemburg ; by Czechoslovakia with Austria, France, and Germany ; by Poland with Austria, France, and Germany, etc.[1]

But these bilateral labour treaties, while of interest for the nationals of the contracting countries, cannot establish a universal code for emigrating workers, especially as the uncertainty of general economic conditions leads to continual changes in the direction

[1] See the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office for the text of a large number of these treaties.

taken by migration currents. On the contrary, the diversity of the systems of regulation introduced by these many treaties into international relations has sometimes made the relations between countries of emigration and immigration even more complicated. The result is that since the First Session of the International Labour Conference (Washington, 1919), questions of equality of treatment have often reappeared before the Conference, the object in view being to establish a general code.

Thus, after having adopted Recommendations in 1919 concerning reciprocity of treatment in respect of labour protection and the right of association, recruiting abroad, unemployment insurance, and the co-ordination of employment exchanges, the International Labour Conference decided to extend these Recommendations, which at first applied only to industrial workers, in 1920 to seamen, and in 1921 to agricultural workers.

In 1925 a Draft Convention and a Recommendation were adopted on the subject of workmen's compensation for industrial accidents, guaranteeing equality of treatment to national and foreign workers.

Finally, in 1925 and 1927, various Conventions and Recommendations were adopted by the Conference concerning accident insurance and sickness insurance, the general provisions of which apply equally to national and foreign workers.

Here too, however, these decisions are more or less disconnected, and do not constitute that coherent and general corpus of international legislation which the Emigration Commission of 1921 demanded for workers recruited abroad.

The desire felt by various Governments for international regulations in this field has of late found other expression on several occasions. Important international conferences have more than once indicated, without adopting formal conventions, how the Governments wish to have these problems solved.

These conferences first took the form of meetings organised by countries with similar interests to protect. First there were the countries of emigration, then those of immigration ; the former met at Rome, the latter at Paris, to try to lay down the principles on which to base their separate policies.

These individual conferences were soon followed by others of a more general kind. Thus in 1924 the delegates of 57 Governments met at Rome in a large conference, including countries both of emigration and of immigration, and adopted a series of resolutions, many of them relating to the conditions of recruiting and employ-

ment of foreign workers. At a second Conference on Emigration and Immigration, which was held at Havana from 31 March to 17 April 1928, several questions relating to the employment of foreign workers were again on the agenda, and thus became the subject of decisions that will be examined in more detail below.

The decisions of these official conferences provide information as to the principles on which the Governments appear to be in theoretical agreement. But it is a long way from an agreement on principles to the adoption of definite and internationally binding conventions. The terms of the convention have first to be decided on, and it must then be accepted by a competent international assembly specially convened for the purpose. In this respect we may draw special attention to the resolutions of the Havana Conference recommending the codification of migration legislation, and asking the League of Nations and the International Labour Office to continue their work in this field.

In adopting these various resolutions the Governments were merely responding to wishes frequently expressed in competent quarters. Among the many demonstrations of international public opinion on this subject, we shall only refer to those coming from the centres best fitted to deal with these questions internationally : the International Association on Unemployment, the International Association for Social Progress, and the International Conference of Private Organisations for the Protection of Migrants.

As early as 1924, the last named organisation had requested the Rome Conference to apply the principle of equality of treatment for immigrants and national workers in as wide and complete a manner as possible, and to abolish commercial recruiting undertakings, or at least subject them to strict supervision. The International Associations on Unemployment and Social Progress, for their part, made similar pronouncements at their sessions held at Berne, Luxemburg, and Montreux. They recognised (Berne, 1925), as among the most important points to be dealt with in International Labour Conventions, the questions of recruiting, the determination of conditions of employment, and the drafting of model contracts for foreign workers. In particular, they demanded that collective recruiting operations for foreign countries should be officially regulated and supervised, showed that the conditions of employment must be such as to ensure equality of treatment for nationals and foreigners, urged that the conclusion and enforcement of contracts should be subject to supervision, and pressed for the

establishment of compulsory standard contracts. At its Montreux session (1926) the Association for Social Progress specified in further detail the points on which it considered action urgent, and affirmed the necessity for concluding explicit International Labour Conventions on these points.

It should be added that questions concerning the employment of foreign workers have also attracted the attention of the workers, among whom they have been the subject of much national and international discussion. Particularly interesting were the discussions at the World Migration Conference (London, 1926) organised by the International Federation of Trade Unions and the Labour and Socialist International. Its decisions were communicated to the International Labour Office and have been discussed on various occasions by the Governing Body. And it was as a result of action taken by a national organisation of workers with a particular knowledge of these questions, the Vienna Chamber of Workers and Employees, in concert with the Austrian Trade Union Commission, that the International Labour Office decided to take up the study of the question without further delay.

At the sitting of the Governing Body at which the Vienna proposal was submitted, suggestions were also made on various sides that the question of equality of treatment of national and foreign workers should at once be placed on the agenda of an early Session of the Conference. This was proposed, among others, by the President of the Employers' Group, Mr. Carlier, and the President of the Governing Body, Mr. Arthur Fontaine, French Government Delegate. The Governing Body finally decided that, owing to the complexity of the problem, there should be no further discussion on the inclusion in the agenda of the question of the employment of foreign workers until it had first — without being put down for a specified Session of the Conference — been examined by the Permanent Emigration Committee attached to the International Labour Office. In this way the question of the " contracts and conditions of employment of foreign workers " was referred to the experts, and it is to facilitate their work that the present study has been prepared.

The Vienna Chamber of Workers and Employees, in agreement with the Austrian Trade Union Commission, has subsequently tried to set out in more detail its views on how the problem should be attacked. Together, these two bodies have sent the International Labour Office the draft of a Convention. This draft, which is based on the principle of reciprocity between the States

ratifying the Convention, deals particularly with industrial and agricultural workers recruited collectively for foreign countries. It provides for the establishment of a compulsory model contract of employment for them containing the text of the provisions applicable to employment in the territory and industry in question, and it is intended to ensure that in every case foreigners and workers shall be paid the same rates, to settle the question of the payment of travelling expenses for the outward and homeward journey, to organise medical and technical examinations before departure so as to prevent subsequent rejection, to ensure that the agreed rates are paid in the country of destination, and to set up joint arbitration courts for settling any difficulties.

The draft also proposes that it should be binding on any State ratifying it to adapt its legislation to the principle of equality of treatment of foreign and national workers in respect of labour protection and social insurance, and in general to introduce the system of standard contracts for all workers recruited collectively abroad.

This rapid review of the regulation of the conditions of employment of foreign workers would be incomplete if it were limited to the international action taken in this field. Besides being dealt with in treaties, model contracts, conventions, resolutions, and proposals, the treatment of foreign workers has lately been the subject of many national laws fixing the conditions in which nationals are allowed to go abroad and foreigners to enter and work in a country.[1]

But the quantity of national laws on special points does not affect the wishes of those who would like to see some order and uniformity introducted into this mass of regulations, often different and sometimes contradictory as they are, and who demand that the International Labour Organisation should draw up an International Convention proclaiming the general principles to be applied to the employment of foreign workers.

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[1] This legislation cannot of course be examined here. It has been the subject of special research by the International Labour Office, which has published a very comprehensive work : *Migation Laws and Treaties* (Studies and Reports, Series O, No. 3; Geneva, 1928). The first volume deals with emigration legislation, the second with immigration legislation, the third with international treaties and conventions. This recent work provides all the material needed for a thorough examination of the question.

The Limits of the Suggested International Agreement

The Governing Body of the International Labour Office decided to submit the question of the " contracts and conditions of employment of foreign workers " to the examination of experts, and it would seem that the field of investigation defined by the terms of this decision is already wide enough to make any further extension undesirable.

The question here, therefore, is not the general legal status of foreigners, or even of foreign workers. The conditions in which a foreigner is allowed to enter and stay in a country, his rights and obligations as against the Government, thus fall outside the limits of this study. It must also be noted that the legal status of foreigners (the bulk of whom are usually workers) involves a large number of legal, political, and constitutional questions, which will no doubt have to be examined some day, but which go beyond the competence of the International Labour Office, as they do not concern workers alone. It may be added that the drafting of a proposal on this subject is being studied by other international bodies. The Economic Committee of the League of Nations, in particular, has attacked the question, and it seems probable that its work will soon lead to the holding of an International Conference.[1]

Nor is it proposed here to lay down the general conditions that should govern emigration and immigration, entry into and departure from a country, or to draw up a general migration code. The legal conditions of emigration and immigration are " domestic " problems which have always been a matter for national study, and it seems unlikely that the Governments have at present any intention of changing their policy in this respect. It may be noted, however, that the question of compiling a general migration code was placed on the agenda of the Havana Conference of Emigration and Immigration, but the proposals on this subject were withdrawn during the proceedings, and the Conference merely adopted a fairly general resolution in favour of the codification of all matters on which agreement has been reached between the countries concerned.

Finally, it is essential to make a definite distinction from the outset between the two forms of migration : that of permanent settlement in a country, often on the land, and that of the migration of workers, who usually come to take up temporary employment and afterwards return home.

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[1] League of Nations. Economic Committee : *Draft Convention on the treatment of foreigners.* Geneva, 1928.

The terms of the decision of the Governing Body limit the present study to the latter form of migration. Undoubtedly there is sometimes a tendency for the distinction between the two types of migration to diminish, owing to the present-day conditions of settlement, which is often organised by international arrangement or collectively. The present obstacles to oversea migration undoubtedly mean that the temporary migration of workers often turns into definitive emigration or settlement. But these are other problems, and it seems difficult to combine such fundamentally different aspects in a single Convention. The present study, therefore, will be limited to the situation of foreign *workers*; and even with this limitation the subject is sufficiently vast.

A difficult point, connected with the nature of multilateral labour conventions, calls for consideration at the outset. Is it possible to treat the whole question of the contracts and conditions of employment of foreign workers in every detail in a single Convention, or is it necessary to arrange the points in order and begin only with the more general or more urgent among them ? If any useful results are to be achieved, we are perforce led by the very complexity of the problem to favour the second solution, at least for the moment.

A Labour Code for foreigners conceived on very wide lines would consist of two parts, the first general, the second special.

The first would comprise all points on which national and foreign workers could be given the same treatment, by a more or less liberal application of the principle of equality of treatment. But a mere declaration of equality of treatment cannot in itself solve all the problems raised by the presence in a country of foreign workers.

In addition to the questions common to both classes of workers, the employment of foreigners raises special problems of infinite variety, for which equality of treatment is not always the most favourable solution. We shall merely enumerate the more important of these problems, all of which involve difficult points:

1. Can the right to emigrate and immigrate be asserted, and if so, in what conditions ?

2. In what conditions may and can recruiting abroad be carried out ?

3. How may the best placing of the worker who wishes to go to another country be ensured, and also of the foreign worker who is already there, without disorganising the labour market of that country ?

4. What contract of employment should be prepared for foreign workers (written contract, model contract, clauses allowing exceptions) ?

5. In what ways may genuine equality of treatment be guaranteed in respect of insurance and protection ? What specific provisions should be adopted concerning accidents, sickness, invalidity, old age, unemployment, and all other forms of social insurance ?

6. To what extent are police regulations dealing with employment applicable to foreigners, particularly with respect to their personal status (whether of age or not, whether under paternal or marital authority, etc.) ?

7. The constitutional rights of foreign workers : right of combination, right to strike, right of assembly, freedom of association.

8. Problems of jurisdiction and representation on occupational committees and courts ; questions of electorate, eligibility, and competence ; special courts.

9. The functions of foreign consuls, emigration attachés, and labour inspectors with regard to workers of their nationality.

10. The separation of families and the fulfilment of maintenance obligations by the head of the family when abroad.

11. The adaptation of migration to the state of the home and foreign labour market.

12. The exercise of the personal civil rights of immigrant workers.

13. The right of foreigners to engage in particular occupations ; the necessary or allowable prohibitions.

14. Special taxes on foreigners.

15. Migration in transit.

16. Frontier zone migrants.

17. Settlement on the land by foreigners (workers, share farmers, settlers, tenant farmers, etc.).

18. Clandestine migrants.

19. Statutory, charitable, and legal assistance for foreign workers.

20. The protective functions of private associations.

21. The conditions of admission, declaration, and registration of foreigners.

22. Questions of identity certificates, passports, and visas.

23. Schools for the children of foreign workers.

24. The transfer of savings.

25. The right to acquire property and have dealings with national credit institutions.

26. Sickness contracted abroad, and the treatment of the sick.

There are many other questions which it would take too long to specify here, but this enumeration is sufficient to show that it is impossible in a single Convention to deal with all the problems affecting foreign workers.

It even seems a material impossibility to examine so many questions at the same time. The problem is seen to be particularly formidable, indeed almost insoluble, when it is remembered in what conditions the International Labour Conference adopts its Draft Conventions. It is hard to believe that a sufficient majority of Government and Group delegates would come to an agreement on a large collection of dissimilar questions, when the difficulties arising out of each are multiplied by those met with in other connections. And even if an agreement were reached, it could be so only by a series of compensations and adjustments that would deprive any Convention adopted of much of its value.

Furthermore, it would be almost impossible to get it ratified, for it is probable that each Government would find ample material in one or other of the hundreds of clauses it must contain for opposition, hesitation, and delay.

It seems, therefore, that if the aim is to be a Convention that shall be adopted and ratified within a reasonable period, it is indispensable to take the questions in order, and to deal first with one or two points that have attracted particular attention, and on which an agreement may be reached, while postponing the other problems for consideration in special Conventions, as and when they become ripe for treatment. This is, in fact, the procedure generally followed in bilateral labour treaties; they lay down the general principles, and refer the details and the examination of special questions to subsequent arrangements.

The question is therefore whether there is at present any subject on which the necessity for international regulation is especially strongly felt and on which an agreement between the Governments is a practical possibility. There appears to be one such subject, and one which raises particularly important problems. It is that of the general principles to be adopted for the recruiting of workers abroad.

During the last few years this form of migration of workers has assumed special importance. The recruiting of labour abroad raises international difficulties, and agreements are so indispensable that nearly all Governments which follow this practice have already found it necessary to regulate the question by bilateral treaties. Reference may be made to the treaties concluded since the war between Austria and Czechoslovakia, Austria and France, Austria and Poland, France and Czechoslovakia, France and Poland, Germany and Poland, Italy and Brazil, and many others, in all of which most of the provisions relate to recruiting problems.

Furthermore, nearly all the official international conferences that have dealt with the problem of foreign workers have stressed the difficulties of the recruiting question and the necessity for solving them. We may mention in this connection the Recommendations of the International Labour Conference (Washington, 1919), the resolutions of the International Emigration Commission (Geneva, 1921), and of the Emigration and Immigration Conferences (Rome, 1924, and Havana, 1928), and the proposal drafted by the Vienna Chamber of Workers.

In solving the problems of international law raised in this respect, the International Labour Conference will be establishing an effective and necessary system of regulations, amply sufficient to fill out a Labour Convention.

There is however another point, closely related to the recruiting problem, which, according to the decision of the Governing Body, it seems necessary to examine at the same time, namely, the contract of employment on the basis of which the collective engagement abroad is to be made.

The two problems appear to be indissolubly connected, for the contract submitted to a foreign worker to induce him to leave his country really forms an integral part of the recruiting operation, and it is hard to conceive of an international agreement on recruiting that does not mention the contract of employment of the recruited workers. The result is that all bilateral labour and emigration treaties that deal with recruiting are careful to fix the conditions in which the standard contracts of employment are to be drawn up before recruiting may actually begin. In particular, the many questions of equality of treatment are settled in the contract.

From the legal standpoint it does not seem impossible to combine the problems of recruiting and of the related contract of employment in a single Draft Convention. Should there be any difficulties over this, it is quite possible for two parallel Draft Conventions

to be adopted in the same Session ; this is a purely technical point depending on the number and substance of the provisions to be inserted.

Having thus defined the general scope of the Convention on "the contract and conditions of employment of foreign workers", we have now to consider the provisions to be included in the Convention. We shall first study the wishes that the Governments have so far expressed concerning :

(*a*) the persons to whom the Convention should apply ;

(*b*) the conditions in which recruiting abroad should be carried out ;

(*c*) the form and the contents of the contracts of employment concluded abroad in consequence of such recruiting.

We shall next examine the clauses whose inclusion in an International Convention may be considered, and shall conclude with certain observations on the standard contracts of employment which play such an important part in international recruiting operations.

The Persons Covered by the Suggested Agreement

At first sight it may seem strange to specify the persons to be covered by the Convention before knowing on what points regulations are to be contemplated. But to attack the problem in the opposite order would be more difficult, for the points with which the Convention can deal must depend on the type of person for whom it is meant.

Perhaps the first distinction to be made is that arising out of nationality and race. In this respect it seems probable that there will be general agreement over the adoption of a very wide definition. A Convention of the International Labour Organisation ought to be applicable to the whole world and cannot leave any nation outside its scope. There may perhaps be countries which will hesitate long — or will hesitate for ever — before ratifying a multilateral engagement concluded in these conditions. But the difficulties in the way of certain ratifications should not necessarily hamper the adoption of the Convention, and in spite of the very real difficulties of legislating simultaneously for European, American, African, and Asiatic workers, representing very different stages of civilisation, it is unthinkable that the effect of the Convention should be limited

to one part only of the world, for this would be the negation of the very essence of an International Labour Convention.

A decision on these lines is important because, contrary to what is sometimes believed to-day, intensive currents of migration of workers are not confined to Europe alone; they are at least as important in non-European countries: in America, for instance, between the United States and Mexico; in Africa, between the Union of South Africa and the Congo, on the one hand, and the territories of the Portuguese colonies and Rhodesia on the other; in Asia, from China and India to the Malay Archipelago and Ceylon; in Australasia, from the Philippines to Hawaii. In all the provisions to be discussed below, it is essential that this aspect of the problem should never be forgotten: *the Convention must be universal in its application.* There can be no question, therefore, of inserting provisions that can be accepted only in one continent, and even less a given country.

This decision by no means implies that the Convention will deal with questions of the right to emigrate or immigrate, or the conditions in which each country will admit or reject certain persons or certain races; on the contrary, it prevents such a result. These are problems entirely foreign to the present discussion, which concerns only labour questions. The method proposed here is moreover in agreement with the unanimous resolution of the International Emigration Commission of 1921, which, on the proposal of the Chinese Delegate, Mr. Li Tchuin, asked for the inclusion in the agenda of the International Labour Conference of the question of equality of treatment, irrespective of origin, for all emigrants lawfully admitted to a country of immigration.[1] On the contrary, workers of any race who have entered a country clandestinely, stowaways, workaways, deserters, or whatever these irregular immigrants may be called, will have no right to claim the benefits of the proposed Convention.

Another problem of a similar nature should apparently be settled on similar lines. For statistical purposes and to facilitate classification, migrants are often divided into two classes: those

[1] The original proposal of the Chinese Delegate was in the following terms: "The International Emigration Commission, having taken note of the request of the Delegate of the Chinese Government, and having recognised the relation between the question raised by him and that of emigration treated by the Commission, adopts the following resolution: The International Emigration Commission proposes to the International Labour Conference that it should include in its agenda the improvements to be made in the present conditions of life of Chinese immigrants, who, in certain countries, are injured from the economic point of view."

going to a country in the same continent (continental or intra-continental migrants), and those going to another continent (oversea migrants). It seems impossible to limit the proposed agreement to intra-continental migration alone. The boundaries of continents are not clearly defined, and very often the neighbouring country in which the worker wishes to do temporary work is in another continent, or the work is carried out under contract conditions similar to those of most workers in their own continent. This is the case as between Oceania and the Far East of Asia, or as between Spain and Algeria, Morocco, or even Cuba ; it is also the case for many workers in the Dutch East Indies who go to work in distant countries.

Further, it seems that the Draft Convention should apply to all workers going to work abroad, and should not be limited to seasonal workers. It may be observed, however, that certain bilateral Conventions (that between Germany and Poland, for instance) apply only to seasonal workers, but it seems difficult to limit a multilateral Convention to seasonal engagements, which are often hard to define once the particular relations between two countries are passed. As a matter of fact, other treaties entered into by Poland (for instance, that with France) do not mention seasonal workers, any more than do the treaties concluded between other countries or in other continents.

The problem of the method of transport of migrants, too, demands a liberal solution. Whether the foreign workers travel by land or by sea, whether on foot, by car, or by aeroplane, by railway or by ship, this should not be made a reason for distinguishing between them, provided they are recruited workers going to take up employment abroad.

The solution of these questions of principle, concerning the field of application of the proposed agreement, seems unlikely to raise serious difficulties, since the whole mechanism of Labour Conventions means that they involve general obligations applicable to the whole world and to all men. As a matter of fact, not one of the many international meetings that have adopted resolutions on migration problems has proposed to limit the Conventions to be concluded to workers of certain races or certain countries or even of one continent, to seasonal industries, or to migration by land. The reason for stressing this point here is that this universality of the proposed Convention must necessarily affect its contents.

A further point on which details are needed is that of the occupational classes to which the Convention should apply.

The most difficult question here is perhaps that of seamen, lightermen, etc., and in general workers in international transport undertakings, where it is the place of work rather than the man that is mobile. Under this head there are special problems to be settled, both varied and difficult, and it seems advisable to keep them for a special Convention. It is in fact the practice of the International Labour Organisation to make special Conventions for seamen.

The position of frontier zone workers is similar. They may be considered in two lights : as foreign workers, whether recruited or emigrating spontaneously, they must be classified with the foreign workers who are subject to the general regulations ; as inhabitants of frontier zones and neighbours, they may in certain circumstances be granted special privileges which are outside the scope of a general Convention on foreign workers. It may be added that the question of frontier zone workers was examined at the Havana Conference in 1928, which recognised that these problems are better dealt with in agreements concluded directly between the countries concerned. It seems preferable that the national authorities should make special arrangements in this respect, which can be frequently modified and must be more elastic than can be expected of multilateral Labour Conventions.

Similarly, the proposed Convention cannot possibly settle the special case of migrants in transit through a country. They do not enter this country in order to carry on their occupation, and any special regulations for them are outside the scope of the present enquiry. Discussions on this subject will probably be resumed some day, but it would overburden and complicate the Convention we are at present contemplating to try to use it to solve a special problem.

The Convention is not to apply to all workers coming from abroad. A worker who arrives spontaneously, without a contract of employment, and without having been recruited, is outside the terms of a Convention on recruiting. A country may refuse to let him enter ; it sometimes does so, but it cannot bring him under the Convention.

On the other hand, is the fact of having been recruited enough to bring a worker within the provisions of the proposed Convention ? This seems equally mistaken, for there are too many cases of applications to some other country for a worker, a servant, or a governess. As a matter of fact, none of the existing treaties goes so far, and there would seem to be no point in their doing so.

They all speak of *collective* recruiting.

But when does recruiting become collective ? Here there are wide differences in the different treaties concluded. Those between Germany and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom and Czechoslovakia define as collective any engagement of two or more persons ; that between Austria and Czechoslovakia speaks of three persons. In a multilateral treaty it would seem difficult to go so far, and probably a somewhat higher, and of course arbitrary, figure would have to be chosen. Perhaps the recruiting of a minimum of five or seven persons might be considered necessary to bring the Convention into play. In any case, the question is not one of principle, and any reasonable plan may be accepted.

On the contrary, and except where otherwise specified, it seems that all other classes of workers, whether employed in industry or in agriculture, apprentices, labourers, or salaried employees, should be subject to general regulations applying equally to all foreign workers.

This holds particularly for migrants who are not yet of age, there being no reason for excluding them from the benefits of the proposed Convention. It happens fairly often, in fact, that groups of foreign workers include minors. Some of these, young workers of either sex, are recruited in the same way as adults, to carry out work specially reserved for young people or to complete a gang of adult workers as apprentices or helpers. Others, generally younger, accompany their family on its way to work in a foreign country, but do not themselves do manual work. The conditions in which this kind of migration takes place are settled by the Governments which prohibit or authorise, with or without conditions, the departure and arrival of these children and young persons.

In consequence of these recruiting operations, children and young persons sometimes become destitute, either because they have lost touch with the family or industrial group on which they were dependent, or because they themselves become unemployed.

The situation of these foreign minors raises various problems, chiefly matters of labour protection, education, and charity. It seems that a special institution should be organised for their protection and assistance, and that this might well come within the scope of the Convention examined here. A measure of this kind is provided for in Article 20 of the Labour Treaty of 1919 between France and Italy.[1]

[1] The text of this article is as follows : " The Committee consisting of French and Italian nationals, provided for in Article 9 of the Franco-Italian Convention

The Convention under consideration here might include a provision in very general terms, stating that adequate measures should be taken for the protection of the interests of these minors in a foreign country. It would of course be difficult to enumerate all the measures that might possibly be adopted, as these depend very much on national laws. But it seems that the principle could be affirmed without disadvantage, precise details as to the measures to be applied being left to special Acts or treaties.

The Advisory Commission for the Protection and Welfare of Children and Young People set up by the League of Nations is at present dealing with the situation of minors when they become destitute, and it has set up a legal sub-committee which has proposed various measures for their assistance.

The Commission distinguishes between three groups of children. In the first place there are those living with their families. For them the best solution appears to the Commission to be to organise the assistance within the family, and to conclude a general Convention on relief to this effect. But this takes the question beyond the ordinary competence of the Commission, and the sub-committee has therefore had to content itself with expressing the wish that the Governments should pay attention to the general conditions of assistance for foreigners, and should adopt an international Convention. Several examples of this kind of convention are already to be found in the bilateral conventions on assistance (Argentina-Belgium, 22 October 1924; Argentina-Netherlands, 23 September 1911; Belgium-Czechoslovakia, 9 May 1925; Belgium-France, 30 November 1921; Estonia-Latvia, 22 November 1924; France-Italy, 30 October 1919; France-Luxemburg, 4 January 1923; France-Poland, 18 October 1920; Germany-Netherlands, 17 December 1904; Italy-Bolivia, 18 October 1890; Italy-Costa Rica, 6 May 1873; Italy-Dominican Republic, 18 October 1886; Italy-Paraguay, 22 August 1893; Latvia-Lithuania, 27 May 1924; Poland-Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, 9 May 1923; and the multilateral arrange-

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of 10 June 1910 for the protection of children and where necessary of adult workers, shall as a rule extend its care to workers of all ages — Italians in France and French workers in Italy — in areas where there is a sufficiently large number of workers from the other country. The constitution of the committee shall henceforth be fixed as follows: (1) the prefect, the sub-prefect, or a councillor of the prefecture; (2) the mayor of the commune or one of his assistants; (3) the inspector of labour or his substitute; (4) the consul or his representative; (5) the president of a society of the other nationality, for mutual assistance, education, or relief, or, in default of such a person, a national of the other country resident in the district; (6) a representative of the employers' organisations and a representative of the workers' trade unions of the district; (7) a worker of each nationality.

ment between Denmark, Norway, and Sweden of 1914, to which Finland adhered in 1923).[1] A draft multilateral arrangement was also approved and signed by twenty Governments at the Conference on the Assistance of Foreigners held in Paris in 1912, but so far it has not been ratified.

The preparation of an international convention of this kind, which will have to settle all the general questions of assistance for foreigners, also seems to be outside the ordinary competence of the International Labour Office. In any case, it far exceeds the limits of an international convention on the conditions of employment of workers recruited abroad.

A second question, on the contrary, is definitely within the competence of the League's Advisory Commission. This is the problem of foreign children who arrive with members of their family, but are not themselves employed, and who subsequently lose touch with their family and become destitute. A preliminary Draft Convention was prepared by the legal sub-committee of the Commission to provide the same protection for these children as for national children, and to organise their repatriation in certain cases. This question is also quite outside the limits of a Labour Convention of the kind we are examining.

But there is a third problem, of interest both to the International Labour Organisation and to the Advisory Commission. It is that of young workers of either sex who have been recruited abroad and have emigrated without their parents, and then lose their work and become a public charge in the country of immigration. The problem here is a mixed one, involving both assistance and labour.

The legal sub-committee of the Advisory Commission has recognised the complexity of this problem, and has expressed the wish that the International Labour Organisation should give attention to it in its studies on the conditions of employment of workers recruited abroad. In its draft proposal on the assistance of minors, the sub-committee expresses the opinion that normally the most favourable solution for the minors would be to repatriate them to their country of origin at the expense of that country. The fact is that these young workers, being deprived of the protection of their family and of their own country, run special risks, and

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[1] For an analysis of these treaties, see the publication of the International Labour Office mentioned above: *Migration Laws and Treaties*: Vol. III, *International Conventions and Treaties.*

it is as much to their own interest as to that of the community as a whole to rapatriate them when no special measures exist for their protection.

Cases may arise, however, where this normal solution would be disadvantageous. Hurried repatriation may in fact interfere with existing treaties or contracts of employment. To facilitate and improve the conditions of recruiting, it seems that it should be possible, in certain cases at least, to adopt other methods making more allowance for the industrial interests affected. For instance, it may be feared that minors or parents might use this provision as a means of illegitimately breaking the contract of employment by securing free repatriation. Industrial employers, who already complain of the too great frequency of breach of contract in connection with the recruiting of foreign workers, would no doubt regard too strict a provision of this kind as a further encouragement to break contracts. Another consideration is that the loss of a first job does not always lead to destitution, for other suitable employment may be found for the minor.

The draft proposal accordingly allows for these cases, and only recommends repatriation as the normal measure, while admitting the possibility of other methods in specified conditions.

The existence of an institution capable of examining each case to decide what is to the true interest of the minors would greatly facilitate the search for suitable solutions, and appears to be in harmony with the spirit and letter of the proposal already drafted. The creation of such an institution would enable questions of repatriation to be given a solution in which safeguarding the interests of the minors is the first consideration. This institution might also be consulted in other cases raising points of intereste to minors, whose protection in all cases against the exploitation of which they have only too often been victims is the really important matter.

A last and very important question arises in connection with the definition of the persons to benefit by the Convention. Is the arrangement contemplated to apply immediately to all foreign workers resident in the country, independently of all ratification by their Governments, or are its effects to be limited to reciprocal relations between the ratifying countries, so that it will apply only to nationals of countries that have expressly approved the Convention ? In other words, is the Convention to be considered as a measure of reciprocity or as a universal measure ? This point has often been raised in connection with Labour Conventions, and

the advantages and disadvantages of the two systems have frequently been compared. It is unnecessary, therefore, to discuss them here again.

From the point of view of precedents, we may note that up to the present the Conventions relating to foreign workers adopted by the International Labour Conference speak of reciprocity. In particular this was the decision taken for unemployment insurance (Washington Convention, 1919), recruiting abroad (Washington Recommendation, 1919), and workmen's compensation for industrial accidents (Geneva, 1925).

The Governments will no doubt hesitate to bind themselves towards workers recruited from a country which itself refuses to assume any obligations. A reciprocity clause is the most powerful means of bringing pressure to bear on less diligent countries, to induce them to ratify Conventions of public utility.

In point of fact, it is certain that concessions made to ratifying countries and their nationals will be applied automatically and normally to all foreign workers recruited, but any reciprocity then granted will be so in virtue only of the comity of nations, and not as a legal obligation. In particular, measures of retaliation may be taken in cases of flagrant abuses by a country that has not ratified, abuses which are no longer conceivable when the country has ratified and may be reached by other sanctions.

Between any two given countries, one of which may have essential objections to ratifying the Convention, the conclusion of a particular treaty may of course be conceived, granting most-favoured-nation treatment on this point. This is a question of international law that has nothing to do with the proposed Convention.

(*To be continued.*)

The Organisation of State Industry in Soviet Russia

by

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The organisation of State industry in Soviet Russia has developed in close connection with the Government's economic policy. The first stage was the period of whole-hearted Communism, to which corresponded the principle of absolute centralisation, which took shape in the concentration of all nationalised undertakings in one single vast enterprise administered as a whole from Moscow. The introduction of the new economic policy involved the break-up of this "single State factory" into a series of "trusts" owning a certain degree of autonomy. The Regulations of 10 April 1923 fixed the general plan of this new form of industrial organisation, which remained in operation until the middle of 1927, since when the general application of the principles of "rational economy" has involved a return to a higher degree of centralisation.

Among the numerous questions raised by the institution of the trusts — internal organisation, relations with the State, relations with the individual undertakings, responsibility to third parties — several are of obvious interest from the social standpoint. Instances are such questions as the relations between the trusts and the trade union movement, the position of co-operative societies in regard to the trusts, the workers' right to a lien on the property of the trusts as security for the payment of their wages, etc. Furthermore, the whole social situation of the wage earner is conditioned by the legal status of his employer, the trust, and by the greater or less independence of the trust in relation to the State.

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STATE industry in Russia, which came into being after the rise to power of the Bolshevist Government, by the mere fact of its existence raises an interesting problem of organisation. Although Russia is far from being highly industrialised as compared with the more advanced countries of Western Europe and America, the concentration of practically the entire industrial system in the

hands of the State has created an economic unit of a magnitude hitherto unknown. Strictly speaking, industry is no longer a State monopoly as it was, at least in theory, during the Communist period ; to-day there are leased industries, " conceded " industries, co-operative industries, and private industries, but they are of only secondary importance and cannot, even taken all together, be compared with the State industries, the extent of which can be gauged from the fact that they employ about two and a half million workpeople at the present moment.

The organisation of this vast enterprise has not remained unchanged since its inception ; there are two quite distinct periods in its history, each of which corresponds to a particular phase in the general development of the Soviet economic system.

The period of whole-hearted Communism was reflected in the policy of complete centralisation, the aim of the Government at that time being to organise State industry on the lines of the " single factory ". Its intention in nationalising industry was not merely to expropriate a class hostile to the new order, but to realise the substantial profits that concentration should yield. The goal was the abolition of that anarchy in production which is inherent in the capitalist system, and if this goal was to be reached it seemed that the managements of the various establishments could no longer be allowed to retain such functions as accepting orders, buying raw materials and fuel, or marketing their manufactures. All these operations were to be carried out on the system of the " single plan ", which itself presupposes unity of command, that is, the existence of a central authority. The application of these principles led to every vestige of independence being taken away not only from individual undertakings but even from whole branches of industry. The latter, administered by central administrative boards (*Glavki*) or central directorates (*Tsentry*), were in a sense nothing more than the several workshops of the "single factory" which, in turn, was managed by the Supreme Economic Council, or more precisely, the "presidium" of the Council. The responsibility of the undertakings themselves was restricted to technical matters and the simpler managerial functions ; and even so certain conditions had to be complied with. The entire commercial side of their work, which formerly was made up of a series of operations effected by the various undertakings acting with full legal autonomy, was henceforth to be part of a complex system of operations effected by organs of the State. Requests for raw materials, fuel, etc., were sent from below upwards, while orders for certain substances to be

supplied, or certain products to be manufactured or distributed, etc., travelled in the opposite direction. The principle of unity required all requests, or nearly all, to travel the full length of the administrative channel to the central organisation, and required every order to make the return journey to the local undertaking. The number of questions that had thus to be settled at Moscow itself was beyond all imagining. If industry had not been almost paralysed, and if certain managers had not been bold enough to take decisions at their own risk without waiting for the instructions of the central organisation, it is hardly likely that the system could have lasted for any length of time.

But the institution of the " single factory " is not the whole history of the Communist experiment in organisation. During the first few months of the system the nationalisation of an industry did not entail the centralisation of its management. It was not easy, in fact, to make a clean sweep of all the powers with which the local workers' committees had invested themselves while the factories were handed over to the workers. The undertaking, though it had become the property of the State, was in fact, in the early period, at the disposal of the workers.

Nevertheless, the workers' committees, of which there were very many kinds, were gradually replaced by the organs of the trade unions, whose influence was similarly limited by reason of their almost complete nationalisation. The trade unions in turn saw their powers taken away little by little and given to managerial authorities set up by the Government — in the first instance committees, but afterwards individuals. Finally, the central body assumed control over these authorities, and it was only then that the " single factory " scheme in its main outlines became a reality.

While practical effect was thus being given to the dominant idea in Communist economics, the idea itself began to give rise to discussion. It was this point that caused the first dispute between Communists, and led for the first time to the formation of an opposition party. The programme of this party, a programme which Lenin denounced as being " distorted trade unionism ", proposed the withdrawal of the management of industrial undertakings from the Soviet organs and its transfer to the trade unions.

The tenth Congress of the Communist Party, held in March 1921, to which the opposition programme was referred, confirmed the system of " bureaucratic centralisation " but also ratified Lenin's proposals which, by substituting taxes in kind for the forcible

requisitioning of provisions, laid the foundations of the new economic policy. The new policy, however, was incompatible with the system of industrial management approved at the same time. This system had been set up in view of the expected conversion of the national economy into a "unified Socialist economy". Admittedly, the application of the system was very far from complete ; side by side with the " single factory " scheme there remained millions of individualist agricultural undertakings, very many small non-nationalised industrial undertakings, and a host of persons who illegally engaged in trade, not to speak of the whole mass of urban consumers who did not belong to any particular branch of industrial activity. But all this, in the eyes of the Government, was nothing more than a survival from the recent past, a temporary derogation from a fundamental principle. The whole scheme of industrial management was founded on the hypothesis that these anomalies would quickly disappear, and in fact the work was organised as though they had actually disappeared.

This state of affairs naturally engendered serious difficulties in the relations between the " single State factory " and the other economic units. The internal condition of the State industries was hardly any better, for the grouping of all the factories of any size in the hands of a single owner was not enough to make them obey a single will. Hence absence of co-ordination continued to manifest itself between the various parts of the " single factory ".

In these circumstances the system had to be gradually abandoned, beginning with the industries in which the experiment had been the most barren of results. But what scheme was to be substituted for the one abandoned ? The Government had no plan ready for the reorganisation of industry ; only a little while before it had declared that the ideal method of organisation was out-and-out centralisation, but now it had to strike out in a new direction, and that without delay, in order to keep the industrial undertakings going.

Two systems of organisation appeared best adapted to the transitional regime that was rising on the ruins of the Communist experiment. The first was the " formal corporation ", constituted to work the State undertakings, and especially the municipal undertakings. The " formal corporation " was given legal personality ; it ceased to be under State control, but all connection with the State or the municipality was not severed, for these two authorities were to share in the profits, if any, and also to see that no prejudice was caused to the public interest. The second system was the

" trust ", which was formed by the grouping of several independent undertakings under one management.

The combination of these two forms gave rise to a special scheme of organisation. Henceforth, State industry no longer took the form of a single vast undertaking, and instead of the " single factory " a network of relatively independent economic units (trusts) made their appearance in considerable but unascertainable numbers. Broadly speaking, each trust comprised certain smaller units (factories, works, mines) belonging to the same branch of industry and situated in the same district. To these were sometimes added the so-called subsidiary undertakings, which looked after the commercial work and transport services of the trust. In some rare instances, the trust consisted of a single but very large industrial unit. Each trust was attached to a particular State organ, usually to an economic council (Supreme Federal Council, council of a federated Republic, or provincial council), but sometimes to another Commissariat. According to the nature of the organ to which they were attached, the trusts were classified as federal trusts, trusts of the Republics, and local trusts. In every case they were placed under the control of the corresponding State organ, but this control was limited to general matters. The official organ drew up the general scheme of work, supervised its execution, sanctioned certain special operations, and appointed or dismissed the higher staff; but, theoretically at least, its control was not to extend to details or to be continuously exercised. During the period of the new economic policy the managements of trusts resembled those of joint-stock companies rather than those of the Soviet undertakings that had been working under the Communist regime. The trusts were, as we have said, relatively independent economic units. Administrative decentralisation was the guiding principle in economic organisation during this period.

These new methods were not introduced at one stroke, and during the seven years in which the new economic policy was in force they were subject to frequent alteration. The first legislative acts of the new regime were the Order of the Council of the People's Commissaries dated 9 August 1921, the Order of the Council of Labour and Defence dated 12 August 1921, and the Order of the Council of the People's Commissaries dated 27 October 1921. These enactments made it possible to choose certain large undertakings which were technically well equipped, properly organised, and suitably situated, and combine them into groups, which were instructed to work on a commercial basis. The managements of

these groups were to be given control over the undertakings in question, together with their equipment, materials, semi-manufactured goods, stocks of raw material and fuel, and also of the subsidiary undertakings. Once they were working on commercial principles, the industrial undertakings were no longer to count on receiving supplies from the State, but they could sell part of their output to meet their requirements. Special regulations were subsequently to be issued to define the degree of autonomy allowed to the groups, their relations with the official economic bodies, and the nature of the control to which they should be subject.

In consequence of the enactments referred to, there was a disintegration of State industry during the last months of 1921 and the first half of 1922, for which the central organs were not in the least responsible, the result being that the "single factory" was superseded by some hundreds of trusts. As no rule of law was as yet in existence, the managements of the trusts were at first left completely to themselves. They had been told to work, and if possible to earn profits, but in any case not to count on grants from the Treasury or the Supply Departments. This scheme, however, was not capable of being executed in its entirety. For a long time to come the State was obliged to make good chronic deficits; and the trusts, for their part, did not immediately cease calling upon the Supply Departments for help.

Still, in all other respects, the trusts definitely asserted their autonomy. Their earliest days were notorious as the "sale at any price"[1] period; they sold part of the stocks entrusted to them in order to build up at least a small working capital. It was a time of feverish commercial activity that often bore no relation to the normal output of the undertakings. Before long, however, certain regulations, and later, certain special enactments, were to remind the trusts that they were not independent and self-contained economic units. In particular, the Order published on 12 September 1922 by the Supreme Economic Council emphatically declared that, with a view to achieving the purposes for which the trusts were formed, the State should have the right of inspection, and might exercise authority over them, without, however, interfering directly in their industrial, commercial, or other economic activities.

It was probably the high degree of autonomy actually enjoyed by the trusts in the course of 1922 that led the authors of the Civil Code promulgated on 30 October 1922 boldly to lay down the

[1] *Razbazarivanié*, a word coined at the time.

principle, as they did in section 19, that the trusts should act as independent legal entities without any connection whatever with the Treasury. The Code, however, naturally left open the questions relating to the management of the trusts and their relations with the organs of the State, to which the right of supreme control was still to belong. In other words, the Code did not define the functions of the trusts as component parts of the State machinery. The practice that had grown up on this point was sanctioned by a Decree published on 10 April 1923 by the All-Russian Central Executive Committee, and by the Council of the People's Commissaries.

This Decree, which dealt with State undertakings working on a commercial basis, and applied to the entire territory of the U.S.S.R. (section 55), was intended by its authors to serve as the groundwork of all later legislation on the organisation of State industry.[1] And in fact, when the structure of the State undertakings not covered by the Decree of 10 April 1923 came to be discussed — this Decree applied only to groups of undertakings under the immediate authority of the Supreme Economic Council or of other Commissariats (section 53) — the Decree was taken as the basis for the new provisions that were being drafted. Thus the Regulations of 17 July 1923, concerning trusts placed under the local organs, repeats section by section the substance of the Decree of 10 April ; on a few points only the provisions are simplified to make allowance for the smaller dimensions of these trusts and the proximity of the competent authorities. Similarly when it was thought necessary to remove the largest trusts from the jurisdiction of the federated Republics and place them under federal organs, the operation was effected by a short Decree (of 12 November 1923) which was little more than an enumeration of the undertakings covered. Furthermore, the system instituted for the industrial trusts by the Decree of 10 April 1923 was later extended to the municipal trusts (Decree of 20 December 1924), to groups of Soviet farms (Decrees of 30 March 1925 and 5 April 1926), and to groups of municipalised buildings (Decree of 11 July 1927). This extension clearly shows what, in the opinion of the legislators, was the real significance of the Decree of 10 April 1923. Here, however, we shall deal solely with its application to industrial trusts, which are the only ones within the compass of this article.

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[1] In the spring of 1923 the supreme organs of the R.S.F.S.R. had power to enact legislation applicable throughout the U.S.S.R.

The Decree of 10 April 1923, together with the enactments that accompanied it, remained in force for four years and a half. But it was soon realised that the Decree had left a number of problems unsettled whose urgency was revealed by events and which in practice were given solutions that had certainly not been foreseen when the Decree was drafted. Accordingly the Government decided at the beginning of 1926 to consider the promulgation of a new Decree. A preliminary draft was published on 12 May 1926, and was examined by the Soviet Departments, by the organisations concerned, and by the Press. Finally it was promulgated, with substantial amendments, on 29 June 1927 by the Central Executive Committee and the Council of the Peoples' Commissaries of the U.S.S.R.

The new Decree had a two-fold object : to fix established custom and to codify enactments relating to industrial undertakings.[1] It is not to be expected that this additional legislation should contain any considerable innovations, or that it should in the near future perceptibly alter the practice that has grown up in consequence of the Decree of 10 April 1923. We are therefore on safe ground in studying the present organisation of Russian industries in the light of the documents belonging to this period.

II

The industrial trusts considered singly are independent economic units, but taken all together they form an extremely complex system built up in three tiers, each of which corresponds, as we have seen, to a particular step in the Soviet hierarchy— Federation of Republics, federated Republics, and local authorities. This division of the trusts into three categories does not, however, mean that there is no organic connection between them. The provincial economic councils are placed under the councils of the various Republics, and these in turn are obliged to carry on their work in conformity with the instructions of the federal Supreme Economic

[1]This codification has however been only partly carried out. The Decree of 29 June 1927 applies to all the federal trusts and to all the State trusts of the federated Republics, but it does not apply to the local trusts unless their statutory capital exceeds one million roubles and they are in addition attached to territorial units having at least the status of provinces (*goubernia*). The regulation of the remaining trusts is a matter for the internal legislation of the federated Republics, which can and should settle many questions concerning State and local trusts that have not been dealt with in the federal Decree.

Council. With the exception of an inconsiderable number of trusts attached to other Commissariats, the whole range of activities of the nationalised industries is thus under the control of the Supreme Economic Council. It directly administers the federal trusts, and lays down principles which determine the course of action of the economic councils of the Republics, which, in turn, exercise authority over the trusts of the Republics on the one hand, and the provincial economic councils (to which, again, the local trusts are subordinated), on the other.

The Decree of 29 June 1927 introduced some changes in the methods of dividing the trusts into categories. Until then the federal organs had chosen the trusts that they thought it necessary to keep within their jurisdiction, and the organs of the federated Republics had handed over to the local executive committees those undertakings that it did not seem reasonable to place under the direct management of the central organs of the Republic. In conformity with section 8 of the new Decree, the classification of newly formed trusts was henceforth to be a matter for the authority founding them. This change was not, as a matter of fact, of great importance, for it cannot be doubted that the higher political organs retain the right to attach directly to themselves any particular trust falling within the jurisdiction of a lower organ, even if the trust in question was founded by the latter ; and inversely, the higher organs can always transfer part of their undertakings to lower organs. In practice, although the Soviet States of various orders are autonomous legal entities, there is joint ownership between them, so that the highest organs in the Soviet hierarchy can in fact dispose of the property of those of lower rank.[1]

III

The Decree of 29 June 1927, as we have said, was not intended to break away from the old system ; but a comparison of its terms with those of the preceding Decree discloses some interesting facts. For example, as regards the authority competent to found a trust,

[1] This joint ownership is plainly set out in the Decree of 29 June 1927. Section 5 lays down that the State trusts of the various Republics may acquire or found undertakings outside the territory of their own Republic, on condition that the Commissariats of the Republics concerned are in agreement ; if no agreement is reached the question is settled by the competent federal Commissariat. Similar joint authority is found in the carrying out of the price policy.

the 1923 Decree bears the clear impress of the first phase of the new economic policy. Starting from the idea, current at the time, that the restoration of capitalist forms would enable the ruined industries to revive, without weakening the position of the State in any way, the Decree gave the trusts a structure that in many respects resembled that of joint-stock companies in a capitalist system. They had an administrative board, a managing director, managers for the various undertakings, and an auditing committee, and the Orders regulating the rights and obligations of these organs were exact replicas of the articles of association of a company. The resemblance was carried still farther by authorising two or more Commissariats and even all kinds of co-operative societies to participate in the trust (section 25). Naturally, the resemblance was not perfect; in the structure of the State trusts an indispensable ingredient of the joint-stock company was missing, namely, the general meeting of shareholders. Under the Decree of 1923, its functions were performed by the authority to which the trust was attached; and this authority, in conformity with section 27, paragraph (*a*), was considered as an organ of the trust itself, its duties being conceived as similar to those of the general meeting of shareholders for a company.

This analogy between the trust and the joint-stock company was not confirmed by events; we shall see later that the State authorities were strengthening their managerial position, so that their functions could no longer be compared with the normal functions of a general meeting of shareholders. It was in vain that endeavours were made to share the work of management among several different organs, or even to divide them between the State and the co-operative societies, on the lines of company organisation. Commentators of the Decree thought that the insertion of section 25 was due to a misunderstanding, and observed that even if the co-operative societies held some capital shares, this could not affect the essential structure of the trust, or give the societies any say in matters relating to its foundation or management. Actually, section 25 remained a dead letter, and in order to obtain the collaboration of co-operative and private capital with that of the State, the Government was compelled to turn to a special form of organisation: the "Mixed Share Companies".[1]

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[1] For information concerning "mixed share companies" cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Organisation of Industry and Labour Conditions in Soviet Russia*, p. 20. Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 11. Geneva, 1922.

From all this the legislators of 1927 drew certain conclusions. They were no longer obsessed by the idea of the joint-stock company, as they were in 1923 ; they now acted on the assumption that the State trusts were " real Socialist undertakings ". Thus the Decree of 1927, in defining the trust, declared that it should be placed under a single organ of the State ; consequently not only could co-operative societies no longer participate in the management of a trust, but also the managerial powers were no longer divided. Furthermore, the State organ at the head of the trust ceased to be considered as a part of it, that is, ceased to take the place of the general meeting of shareholders, and henceforth ranked above it in the administrative scale. The managing director vanished ,and no further mention was made of the auditing committee. The latter however, was not really abolished, for committees of this kind will certainly be provided for in future enactments to supplement the Decree of 29 June and regulate its application to the various classes of trusts. If the question was left open in the Decree of 1927, it was solely because, under the system established by the 1923 Decree, the auditing committees varied widely in structure according to the class of trust concerned ; for local trusts, in particular, they were not so much organs of the trusts as of the local Soviet, and they were in fact set up by the Provincial Economic Council for all the trusts under the Council.

However this may be, the administrative board, which was already the most important organ of the trust in the legislation of 1923, is the only organ mentioned in the 1927 Decree. Its composition is almost the same in the two Decrees : it is composed of not less than three and not more than five members appointed by the authority under which the trust is placed ; in some cases it is replaced by a single director. According to the old Decree, the board served for one year ; now it is for the statutes to fix its period of office, which may not, however, in any case exceed three years. The old Decree stipulated that the chairman of the board could not be removed from office unless he had shown himself to be incompetent, or had been guilty of criminal acts or maladministration, while the other members could be removed at any time and without any conditions. The new Decree has somewhat strengthened the position of the board in that neither the chairman nor the ordinary members can henceforth be prematurely removed from office unless proof of incompetence is forthcoming, although the rather vague definition of " incompetence " considerably reduces the value of this safeguard. As to the duties of the board, they are

no longer set out at great length after the manner of the articles of association of a company, as they were in the earlier Decree. On this point, the Decree of 29 June 1927 confines itself to a simple and general statement: "The Administrative Board shall attend to the current business and the management of the trust, administer its property, conclude collective agreements, and carry out all transactions coming within the field of activity of the trust."

A considerable technical staff is usually attached to the administrative board. According to the model regulations drawn up by the Supreme Economic Council, this staff comprises rationalisation, commercial, technical, and general sections, a labour department or section, a central accounting department, and a legal department or legal adviser.

We have already seen that the new Decree does not mention auditing committees, but according to the earlier Decree these were ordinarily to consist of two members appointed by the Economic Council and one member representing the trade union concerned, and there is no reason to suppose that their composition has been altered in consequence of the publication of the 1927 Decree.

When the trust is composed of several industrial undertakings, as is usually the case, it is interesting to examine the relations between the trust as a whole and its component parts. At first, the trust was considered as an absolute unit, but experience soon showed the necessity of allowing some degree of independence to the constituent undertakings. To meet this need, the Supreme Economic Council of the U.S.S.R. issued the Orders of 14 May and 14 June 1924, embodying instructions on the management of these undertakings, and stipulating, in particular, that the legal powers of factory managements should be precisely defined by a special procuration. The duties assigned to the managements were to include the preparation of financial estimates and programmes of production. The Orders also regulated the manner of acceptance by the factories of orders given by the trust, the method of supply of raw materials and fuel, and the limits within which the factory management was free to accept orders and market its manufactures. One section dealt with the possibility of marking manufactured articles with the factory's trade-mark as well as that of the trust. Thus the undertakings had some degree of autonomy within the trust, not dissimilar from the position of the trusts themselves within State industry as a whole.

This autonomy, however, was sometimes strongly opposed. A number of trusts refused to make out procurations in favour of their factory managers; others tried to confine the scope of these documents within narrow limits. In particular, they adopted a very reserved attitude towards the double trade-mark, so much so that the Supreme Economic Council had to intervene and issue a special Order, which entrusted the economic councils concerned with the settlement of disputes on this matter.

The adjustment of the relations between the trust and its various undertakings was taken up again in detail in the 1927 Decree, which contained a new chapter on this question. The provisions of this chapter are modelled on those of the Orders of 1924, and are supplemented by regulations on the management of undertakings organised as trusts, published later by the Supreme Economic Council, as well as by a model procuration for factory managers.

One last question remains to be investigated before we can fully understand the legal status of the trusts and their exact position in the Soviet economic system: we refer to the question of their relations with the trade unions. In reality, liaison with the union is effected not through the trust, but through the individual undertaking, in which the union usually has a branch. The relations between the organs of the trade union branch (the general meeting of the staff of the undertaking, and the factory committee) and the management are defined by a Circular of 20 April 1922 signed by the Supreme Economic Council and the Central Council of Trade Unions. According to this Circular, the organs of the trade union are to supervise the activities of the management, without, however, interfering in its work; if they discover any irregularities they are to report them to the management, or, if need be, to the authority responsible for the undertaking, or to the officials of the Commissariat for Workers' and Peasants' Inspection. The trade-union organs may also be called upon to collaborate in measures intended to increase the workers' output, and in particular in the organisation of conferences on production, at which they are asked to secure the presence of as many workers as possible. With a view to increasing the value of these conferences, the Supreme Economic Council and the Central Council of Trade Unions published regulations, dated 2 February 1927, on the so-called temporary supervisory committees. These committees work under the factory committee and are dissolved as soon as they have done the work assigned to them. They are set up to see that the recommendations made by the conferences on production are

carried out, and to examine the reasons given by the management for rejecting them or failing to apply them.

With regard to the relations between the trade unions and the trust as a whole, we have already pointed out that the unions appoint delegates to the auditing committees. In this way the unions are indirectly called upon to consider candidates for the higher posts, and to study programmes of production and, in general, the trust's scheme of activities. This is the sum total of the share of the unions in the organisation of Soviet industries at the present time.[1]

IV

The analogy between the trusts and joint-stock companies, originating in the Decree of 1923, and the simplifications in the structure of the trusts effected in 1927, have led to their occupying quite a special position in the ranks of Soviet institutions. It is true that they are under the authority of the State, represented in this case by the economic councils, but this authority is not exercised in the same way as for other institutions. The trust enjoys a certain autonomy, although it has been less since 1927 than it was under the Decree of 1923. Section 29 of this Decree instructed the Supreme Economic Council to abstain from interfering in the managerial and current economic functions of the administrative board, whereas the 1927 Decree, turning this provision round the other way, merely states that the trusts are autonomous as regards their " operative " activities (section 2, subsection 2). This declaration is repeated in greater detail in section 19, which stipulates that the administrative board shall act independently in regulating the " operative " and managerial functions of the trust, and shall not ask for the approval of the higher authority under which it is placed except in certain cases which are clearly specified by the law. In addition, section 2 states that the trust must be run on a commercial basis. The 1923 Decree went further and added the words " with a view to earning profits ". But commentators of the 1927 Decree hold that its shorter wording has not in any way altered the meaning, for the notion of a " commercial basis " itself implies the idea of profits ; the omission of the amplifying words is

[1] For further information on the participation of the trade unions in the management of State industry cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *The Trade Union Movement in Soviet Russia*, Part III, Chapter I, § 3. Studies and Reports, Series A, No. 26. Geneva, 1927.

to be explained solely by anxiety to conform to the principles of Socialist economics which do not allow profit-making to be put in the foreground. If this is so, then the mention of the " commercial basis " may still be taken as evidence of the independence of the trusts.

Notwithstanding this, it cannot be argued that the provisions referred to give the administrative boards a position enabling them to set their rights against those of the Supreme Economic Council or, for that matter, of any other institution. Their rights are, in fact, counterbalanced by a series of legislative provisions in which the subordination of the trusts to the organs of the State is clearly brought out. In the 1927 Decree, for example, this subordination follows from the very definition of the trust, which states that its activities must conform to the instructions given by the authority on which it depends. Subordination of this kind is also postulated by the 1923 Decree, but it is not so clearly expressed ; it is not mentioned in the definition of the trust, and only occurs in the description of the functions of the controlling authority (section 28), which are closely bound up with the problems of " rational economy ".

The new Decree, like the old, throws no light on the meaning of the term " rational economy " ; it does no more than give a few examples. In particular, the establishment by the organs of the State of maximum and minimum selling prices is provided for, as well as a very special conception of rationing by which the trusts are obliged to conclude contracts with the organs of the State for the supply of goods below market prices. It is, however, precisely in the direction of this vague notion of " rational economy " that the evolution that has greatly reduced the independence of the Soviet trusts in recent years has turned.

Many functions that originally devolved on the local authorities have returned to the central authorities. It is the central authorities that have begun to settle the methods of reconstituting the fixed capital of the trusts and realising the non-liquid assets. The fixing of selling prices, too, has become, almost without exception, a matter for the central authorities, and the same is true of the purchase and sale of manufactured goods.

When the Decree of 1927 was being drawn up, this evolution was naturally one of the matters that attracted attention. In an interesting report presented to the Institute of Soviet Law, Professor Schreter, an authority on industrial law, declared that the new draft did not advance the solution of the fundamental problem

in trust legislation by a single step — the problem, that is, of harmonising the principle of the " commercial basis ", which implies trying to earn a profit, with " rational economy ", the object of which is the organisation of labour to meet the requirements of the State. The existing lack of precision, he added, hampered the working of the trusts. The very definition of the trust should clearly indicate that the earning of profits should be a secondary consideration as compared with the execution of the tasks set by the State. These tasks should, as far as possible, be specified in the draft, and, in order to arrive at a complete list, the general indications given by the central organs of the Government could be used. However, in the discussion that followed this report, the speakers agreed that it was not possible or necessary to define the duties of the trusts rigidly, and contented themselves with a rather vague formula which merely stated that the trusts were bound to carry out the systematic tasks imposed by the Supreme Economic Council and the Council of Labour and Defence. It seems plain from this unanimous opinion voiced by Professor Schreter's opponents that the antagonism between the principle of the autonomy of the trusts and that of rational economy is not yet at an end.

V

Thus at the present time we find that the independence of the trusts in relation to the organs of the State has been considerably curtailed. It now remains to examine their position as to third parties. Their autonomy in this respect is mainly a matter of the independent legal status granted them from the moment of their registration. From this moment there is no further joint responsibility on the part of the State and the trusts for obligations undertaken by them. Section 4 of the 1927 Decree states that " the Treasury and local Soviets shall henceforth not be responsible for the debts of trusts ; trusts shall henceforth not be responsible for the debts of the State or of local Soviets. " The first sentence is taken from the Decree of 1923, but the second is new, although the rule had already been applied.

This autonomy, however, important as it is for third parties, has not been completely achieved. Though the trust is not responsible for State debts, the greater part of its property is no security for creditors, because it is State property. Even the

guarantee constituted by the property owned absolutely by the trust can be annihilated by a mere decision of the competent organ of the State. The question is in fact so important that it is worth discussing at greater length.

The 1923 Decree distinguished two components in the statutory capital of the trust as constituted by the property made over to it, namely, fixed capital and circulating capital. The fixed capital included the factory and other buildings, machinery, equipment, livestock and other stock. The circulating capital consisted of liquid assets, negotiable securities, output, and, in general, goods that can only be used once in the course of production, e.g. fuel and raw materials. As a rule, the trust can freely dispose of the circulating capital alone, which is the sole security for creditors; for the fixed capital the trust is tied by section 22 of the Civil Code, which stipulates that such capital cannot be disposed of if the property concerned has been withdrawn from private ownership, and further states that property withdrawn from private ownership includes undertakings and their equipment, except such parts as are old and worn out.

It was not long before the restrictions thus imposed on the right of the trusts to dispose of their property were strongly resisted. Endeavours were made by straining the meaning of section 22 of the Civil Code to narrow the scope of the rule of inalienability. The arguments advanced were more specious than sound, but their very numbers and the stubbornness with which they were maintained showed that they were based on a vital need. These endeavours were ultimately successful: the Order of the Council of Labour and Defence of 29 January 1926, embodied in the Decree of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. of 11 June 1926 and supplemented by detailed rules for its application contained in the Decree issued by the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissaries of the R.S.F.S.R. on 11 October 1926, effected the first breach in the rule forbidding the alienation of the property of State trusts. After declaring once again that the principle of the inalienability of the fixed capital of State undertakings is inviolable, the Order of the Council of Labour and Defence continues in terms that greatly reduce the scope of the principle: "It shall be lawful to alienate factories, works, and other industrial undertakings of the State that are not working and cannot be rationally used, or of which the upkeep and repairs would be too costly. The equipment of an undertaking may be alienated . . . if it is worn out, if it cannot be employed for the purposes for which it

was intended, or if it is so old-fashioned that it would have to be replaced by more modern equipment."

The authors of the 1927 Decree, taking into account the 1926 Decrees and the practice that had grown up in the course of the preceding years, rejected the division of the statutory capital into fixed capital and circulating capital, and cut down references to the Civil Code. Henceforth the security of the trusts' creditors comprises all property attachable under the legislation in force. This provision has given rise to a very peculiar position. While the trusts acting as separate legal entities have the power to assume certain obligations, they can only do so on their own responsibility and must not engage the responsibility of the State; it follows that the State property at their disposal cannot be alienated at the request of a creditor, although it may be alienated for other reasons. In this respect the property of the Soviet State enjoys a highly privileged position.

To be quite accurate, this immunity from attachment does not apply to all the property of the trust; but even where it does not apply, the rights of creditors are doubtful, owing to the peculiar methods by which State industrial undertakings may be reorganised or wound up. Although the trusts act as separate legal entities, they are none the less integral parts of the system of State institutions, and this system may be reorganised in part, or even suppressed in part, by administrative rulings. As the experience of the arbitration commissions proves, the provincial economic councils avail themselves largely of this power, and, as a matter of fact, they have often made changes in the property of the trusts within their jurisdiction without giving a thought to the obligations assumed by the undertakings concerned. In this way these undertakings have sometimes been made artificially insolvent. By way of illustration we may quote an absolutely typical case reported in the proceedings of the Arbitration Commission of the Economic Councils of the R.S.F.S.R. The local authorities of Kaluga, in winding up a forestry trust known as "Kalugoless", deducted from its circulating capital, reckoned at 320,000 roubles, building wood and fuel to the value of 205,000 roubles, and transferred these items to a newly formed trust. In consequence of this operation the final balance sheet of "Kalugoless" showed a deficit of 170,000 roubles, and its creditors were accordingly deprived of part of the sums due to them.

To difficulties such as these must be added the fact that Soviet legislation contains no laws on insolvency, and furthermore the

Orders relating to the winding up of trusts are notoriously inadequate. In an article published three years ago, but still true in substance, the President of the Arbitration Commission of the Council of Labour and Defence of the U.S.S.R. wrote these words : " What goes on when concerns are being wound up is quite inadmissible. Owing to the total absence of rules on the subject, what actually happens is that the undertakings go into liquidation under conditions and by methods that they themselves fix, completely neglecting the interests of the creditors. "

i The new Decree endeavours to bring about some improvement rn this state of affairs. Subsection 1 of section 7 forbids the teduction without compensation of the fixed capital of a trust by the alienation of an undertaking or other property if the remaining assets are not enough to cover its debts. But this provision loses much of its force by reason of the next subsection of the same section, which authorises exceptions to the rule, and confines itself to declaring that in the excepted cases referred to a preliminary examination shall be made of the methods to be adopted for extinguishing the trust's debts without prejudicing the interests of the creditors. The rules on these points are given in detail in sections 59 to 64 of the Decree, which deal with the amalgamation and subdivision of trusts. Here it is stated that such amalgamation or subdivision shall be carried out by founding new trusts, registering new statutes, and distributing the assets and liabilities. But the rules as to the covering of deficits and the winding up of trusts do not improve the creditors' position ; from some points of view they make it even worse. For instance, section 20 of the old Decree made some provision for the covering of deficits by the Treasury, and this stipulation was of some value, especially during the first years, because it was the only one that enabled the claims of the creditors ranking first, namely, the workers, to be met. The new Decree, however, contains no such provision.

VI

The trust, then, taken as a whole, has a two-fold aspect. On the one hand it is an independent legal entity ; on the other it is an integral part of the State machinery. So far as it is separate from the State it is not responsible for the debts of the State ; and so far as its property is by definition State property, it is largely not responsible for its own debts. The trust and its organs, instructed

to work on the principle of the " commercial basis ", enjoy a certain autonomy essential to this purpose ; while at the same time they are subordinate to the organs of the State, which adopt the standpoint of " rational economy " and are apt to make the trust deviate from the task assigned to it. As a result of this two-fold aspect, the trust is in a state of unstable equilibrium, and recent developments tend to give precedence to the principle of " rational economy " over that of the " commercial basis ". Under the influence of these developments the trusts have changed their nature ; from almost independent undertakings they have become slightly decentralised organs of the State. Thus, the " single State factory ", which was disintegrated in 1921-1922, now shows a tendency towards reintegration.

Seasonal Unemployment in the Building Industry in Certain European Countries : III

by

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The first part of this study[1] *contained a critical discussion of statistics showing the fluctuations of unemployment and of the problems of methodology raised by them. The remainder of the study contains a detailed analysis of the facts country by country. The statistics for Great Britain were dealt with in the second part*[2]*; the third and last, given below, analyses the data for Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, and Italy. The study ends with a general summary of the conclusions reached with regard to the intensity of seasonal fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry, the duration of these fluctuations, their general character, and the special features of the different occupations in the building industry.*

ANALYSIS OF THE FACTS

(*Continued*)

Denmark

30. For Denmark statistics of the monthly fluctuations in unemployment among trade unionists are available for the 17 years from 1910 to 1926 inclusive. They show the absolute numbers and also the percentage unemployed at the end of each month for all industries, for the building industry, and for various occupations belonging to the building industry. All these data are given separately for the whole Kingdom, for the capital, and for the rest of the country. The present study will be restricted to the percentage unemployed among the workers in all industries, in the building industry, and in the four building occupations which are

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[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIX, No. 1, Jan. 1929, pp. 39-59.
[2] *Idem*, No. 2, Feb. 1929, pp. 205-230.

of greatest numerical importance and for which figures are regularly published in the Danish Statistical Yearbooks, in each case for the whole Kingdom. The four occupations in order of numerical importance are joiners, masons, carpenters, and painters.[1] The examination might be more complete if the same phenomena were studied separately for Copenhagen and for the rest of Denmark. This has not been possible, but perhaps someone in the country itself may continue the investigations thus begun.

For the classes of workers mentioned, the monthly fluctuations in unemployment, calculated by the usual method of extended medians, are shown in table IV and Figures 27-36.

Comparison of this table with the figures for Great Britain brings to light two striking facts : firstly, the extremely high annual average rates of unemployment in Denmark, and secondly, the very wide range of monthly fluctuations in that country. It may be said that all the phenomena of unemployment are here magnified, or, to use another metaphor, transposed to a higher octave. Even allowing for the fact that part of this difference may be attributed to the methods of observation in use in the two countries, it remains true, nevertheless, that the annual average rate for the building industry in Denmark is more than double that observed for approximately the same period in Great Britain (16.7 and 7.5 per cent. respectively) ; it is double for painters (20.8 and 10.4 per cent.), five times for masons (18.6 and 3.8 per cent.) and for carpenters (13.9 and 2.8 per cent.). The standard deviation of the monthly fluctuations in unemployment during the period under consideration and for all industries is eleven times that observed for all industries in Great Britain during the period 1922-1927 (5.12 and 0.45 per cent. respectively). The same standard deviation for the building industry, observed at approximately the same period in the two countries, is almost eleven times as high in Denmark as in Great Britain (12.87 and 1.22 per cent. respectively) ; it is more than three times as great for painters (20.63 and 6.23 per cent.), seventeen times as great for masons (19.70 and 1.18 per cent.), and 22 times as great for carpenters.

Having noted these comparisons, we may proceed to examine the phenomena of unemployment in Denmark in greater detail.

31. The following observations may be made with regard to the annual average rate.

[1] The absolute number of trade unionists in question at the end of December 1926 was 274,541 for all industries and 31,857 for the building industry, of whom 7,245 were masons, 5,402 painters, 6,883 carpenters, and 8,360 joiners.

TABLE IV. DENMARK. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, 1910-1926.

Month etc.	Number of unemployed per 100 trade unionists						Monthly index of unemployment					
	All industries together	Building	Painters	Masons	Carpenters	Joiners	All industries together	Building	Painters	Masons	Carpenters	Joiners
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Jan.	19.2	40.2	55.3	54.9	36.6	24.0	1.87	2.41	2.66	2.95	2.63	1.79
Feb.	17.8	35.8	46.6	50.4	31.6	21.5	1.73	2.14	2.24	2.71	2.27	1.61
March	13.6	22.5	21.7	26.2	17.7	15.8	1.32	1.35	1.04	1.41	1.27	1.18
April	7.7	8.4	1.0	6.1	8.0	10.5	0.75	0.50	0.05	0.33	0.58	0.78
May	5.9	5.3	1.5	2.7	3.7	9.3	0.57	0.32	0.07	0.15	0.27	0.70
June	5.1	5.3	3.5	1.8	1.9	9.5	0.50	0.32	0.17	0.10	0.14	0.71
July	5.3	5.2	3.2	1.3	2.3	8.1	0.52	0.31	0.15	0.07	0.17	0.61
Aug.	6.3	7.0	5.5	3.6	4.1	8.3	0.61	0.42	0.26	0.19	0.29	0.62
Sept.	6.3	6.6	6.2	4.7	5.7	6.9	0.61	0.40	0.30	0.25	0.41	0.52
Oct.	7.8	9.8	14.4	6.8	9.5	9.4	0.76	0.59	0.69	0.37	0.68	0.70
Nov.	10.8	19.5	37.6	19.5	16.4	12.7	1.05	1.17	1.81	1.05	1.18	0.95
Dec.	17.5	34.7	54.1	45.5	29.8	24.5	1.70	2.08	2.60	2.45	2.14	1.83
Average of 12 months	10.3	16.7	20.8	18.6	13.9	13.4	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	Jan. 19.2	Jan. 40.2	Jan. 55.3	Jan. 54.9	Jan. 36.6	Dec. 24.5 / Jan. 24.0	Jan. 1.87	Jan. 2.41	Jan. 2.66	Jan. 2.95	Jan. 2.63	Dec. 1.83 / Jan. 1.79
Minimum	June 5.1	July 5.2	April 1.0	July 1.3	June 1.9	Sept. 6.9	June 0.50	July 0.31	April 0.05	July 0.07	June 0.14	Sept. 0.52
α (*max—min*)	14.1	35.0	54.3	53.6	34.7	17.6	1.37	2.10	2.61	2.88	2.49	1.27
$\frac{\alpha}{min}$	2.76	6.73	54.30	41.20	18.26	2.55	2.76	6.73	54.30	41.23	18.26	2.55
σ	5.12	12.87	20.63	19.70	11.91	6.19	0.50	0.77	0.99	1.06	0.86	0.46
β (index of concentration)	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.10	0.10	0.10
γ (index of prolongation)	0.82	0.82	0.82	0.79	0.78	0.78	0.82	0.82	0.82	0.79	0.78	0.78

(*a*) As in Great Britain (but to a much higher degree), the annual average rate of unemployment for the building industry is much higher than for all industries together ; it is, in fact, almost two-thirds more (16.7 : 10.3).

(*b*) The different occupations shown in table IV, when arranged according to their average rate of unemployment, come in exactly the same order as for Great Britain. In Denmark also, the painters have the highest average rate, the masons come next, and are followed by the carpenters and the joiners.[1] In Denmark,

DENMARK. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN ALL INDUSTRIES AND THE BUILDING INDUSTRY, 1910-1926

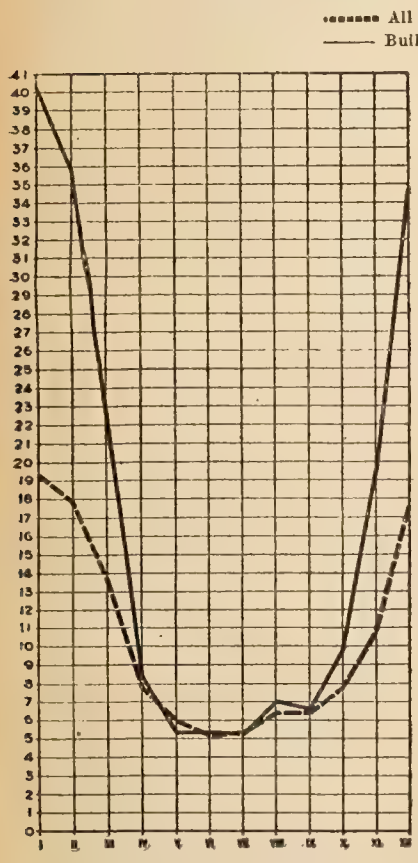

FIGURE 27. UNEMPLOYED PER 100 TRADE UNIONISTS

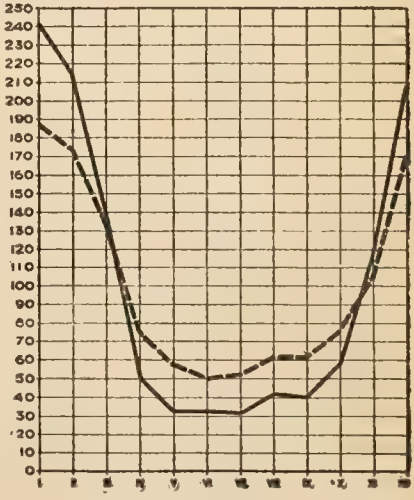

FIGURE 28. MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

[1] It would thus appear that there is a considerable similarity, or one might say solidarity, in the rate of unemployment among workers of the same occupation in different countries. This fact has already been pointed out and analysed by

however, the masons are much closer to the painters than they are in Great Britain.

32. The monthly fluctuations in the rate of unemployment for the whole building industry lead to the following observations.

(*a*) As in Great Britain, the effect of seasonal influences on the building industry is much more marked than on all industries of the country as a whole. Taking their absolute magnitude, the range of the fluctuations is two and a half times as great (35.0 and 14.1 respectively), and the same is true of the standard deviation (12.87 and 5.12 respectively). Even calculated as a proportion of the average annual rate of unemployment, which is much higher for the building industry than for all industries together, the range of the fluctuations (2.10 and 1.37) and the standard deviation (0.77 and 0.50) are still 54 per cent. higher for workers in the building industry than for workers in all industries together.

It must also be noted that during the period of reduced unemployment, particularly for the six months from April to September, the rate of unemployment in the building industry in Denmark is almost the same as that observed in all industries. The great excess in the *average* annual rate mentioned just above is therefore almost entirely due to an extremely marked increase in unemployment in the building industry during the slack season.

(*b*) The seasonal fluctuations are in general very prolonged in Denmark. For all industries together, the index of prolongation of these fluctuations ($\gamma = 0.82$) is much higher than in Great Britain (0.50 for the period 1922-1927). The long duration of the seasonal fluctuations in the building industry, which is almost the same as for this industry in Great Britain, does not however exceed that for all industries in Denmark. For the building industry, as for all industries together, the indexes of concentration and of prolongation are 0.08 and 0.82 respectively.

(*c*) As in Great Britain, so also in Denmark the unemployment curve for the building industry reaches its maximum in January, while its minimum falls in July ; there is very little difference between this latter month and June. A second very slight fall of the curve appears in September, but it is not really possible to speak of a second maximum in the unemployment curve, since,

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Mr. Max Lazard in his book *Le chômage et la profession* (Paris, 1909). Similar ideas are discussed in the present author's article " L'émigration des Européens aux Etats-Unis au point de vue professionnel " in the *Bulletin trimestriel de l'Association internationale pour la lutte contre le chômage*, 1912, and in his book *Le Juif errant d'aujourd'hui* (Paris, 1913).

apart from this barely perceptible fall in September, the curve rises steadily from July to January, and falls as steadily from January to July. Furthermore, the year falls into two very distinct parts: during the five months from November to March the unemploy-

DENMARK. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY AND AMONG PAINTERS, 1910-1926

—— Building industry as a whole.
▬▬ Painters.

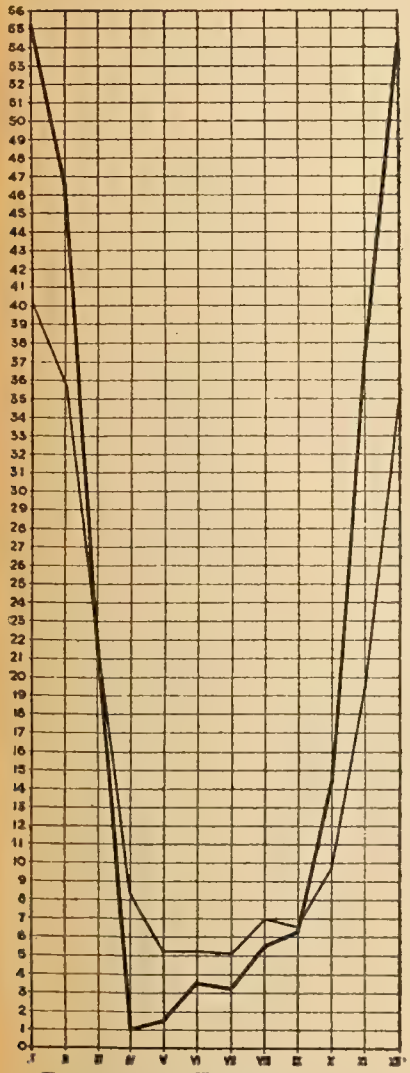

FIGURE 29. UNEMPLOYED PER 100 TRADE UNIONISTS

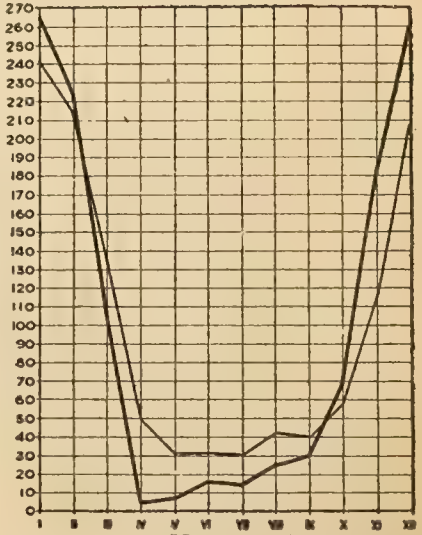

FIGURE 30. MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

ment curve is well above the mean ; during the seven months from April to November it is well below it.[1]

DENMARK. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY AND AMONG MASONS, 1910-1926

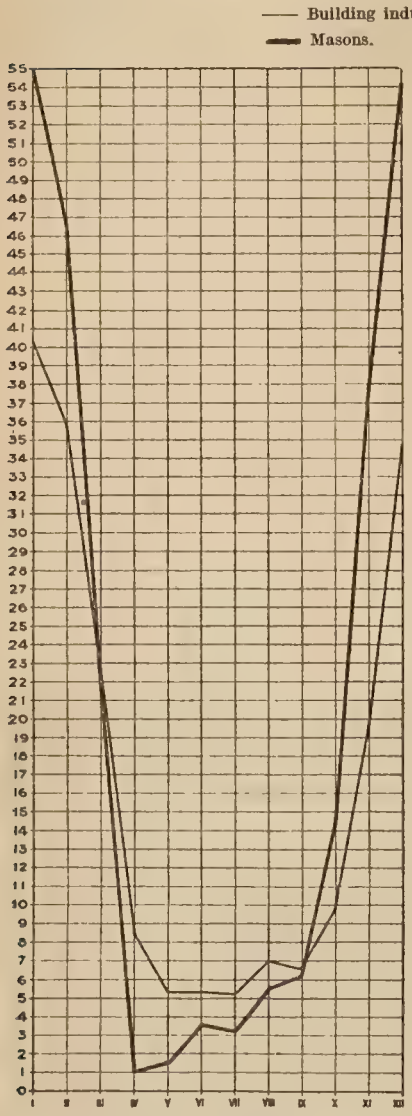

FIGURE 31. UNEMPLOYED PER 100 TRADE UNIONISTS

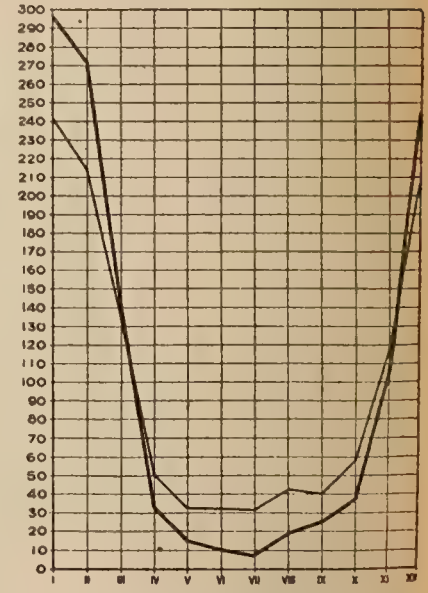

FIGURE 32. MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

[1] In view of the abrupt movement of the curve, without any transition stage between the periods of great activity and of widespread unemployment, the process of curve fitting by means of a sine curve would give a very distorted version

33. The following general remarks may be made with reference to the various building occupations included in table IV (see also Figures 29-36).

(*a*) With the possible exception of the joiners, who doubtless belong to the furniture-making industry rather than to the building industry, and whose curve has a somewhat uneven course, the monthly fluctuations of unemployment for all the occupations considered form a curve with a single maximum and a single minimum. In this respect, therefore, the masons' and carpenters' occupations in Denmark differ from what has been seen above (section 26) for Great Britain.

(*b*) Here, as in Great Britain, the maximum amount of unemployment for all occupations in the building industry appears to come in January, again with the single exception of the joiners, who seem to have slightly more unemployment in December than in January.[1] The minimum varies in Denmark in much the same way as in Great Britain, from one occupation to another, and may fall in April, June, July, or September.

34. An examination of the special characteristics of each occupation gives the following results. The *painters* and *masons* show by far the widest range of seasonal fluctuations; the intensity of the fluctuations is practically the same in each case. As in Great Britain, the *absolute* magnitude of the fluctuations is much greater for painters; the same holds good for the range of the fluctuations (54.3 for painters, as against 53.6 for masons, 35.0 for the whole building industry, and 14.1 for all industries together), which is more than three times the considerable range of fluctuations observed above for painters in Great Britain (17.7). Their standard deviation also (20.63, as against 19.70 for masons, 12.87 for the building industry in general, and 5.12 for all industries) is more than three times that observed for Great Britain (6.23). In contrast to the position in that country, however, it will be found that *relatively* to the annual average rate (i.e. if we consider the monthly indexes of unemployment), the fluctuations for masons are slightly higher in Denmark than those for painters (the range

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of the facts. Such a sine curve, the equation of which would be $y = 16.7 + 16.74 \sin \Phi$, would give a series of theoretical figures such that the sum of the differences from the given figures would be 46 per cent. of the sum of the figures in each series.

[1] During the 17 years studied, unemployment in December was higher only six times and lower eleven times than in January of the same calendar year: but unemployment in December was higher nine times and lower seven times than in January of the same winter.

of the fluctuations being 2.61 times the average rate for painters and 2.88 for masons, while the standard deviation is 0.99 and 1.06 times the annual average rate respectively).

The extreme seasonal fluctuations of unemployment in these two occupations in Denmark deserve special notice. *For two months of the year, indeed, at the end of December and at the end of January, it will be seen that the majority of painters (54.1 and 55.3 per cent. respectively) are out of work. The same is the case for masons at the end of January (54.9) and of February (50.4 per cent.).* On the other hand, the rate of unemployment among painters is only 1.0 per cent. in April and 1.5 per cent. in May. Among the masons, similarly, it is only 1.3 per cent. in July. In the month of maximum unemployment, the rate of unemployment for painters is thus 55 times as great as in the month of minimum unemployment, while for masons it is 42 times as great. In face of such violent seasonal fluctuations, it seems hardly possible to maintain that the conscious action of society cannot modify them very considerably, even within the framework of the existing social order.

In Denmark, as in Great Britain, seasonal fluctuations are found earliest among painters. It is among painters that the great decrease in unemployment in early spring is first felt; as early as the end of March their terrible winter level of unemployment falls almost to the average for the year (column (10) of table IV), and it is among them, at the end of April, that unemployment first falls to its absolute minimum, which is only 1 per cent. of the average rate for the year. Among them also unemployment first begins to rise again (from the end of May), while in other occupations it is still falling steadily, and among them, again, autumn first heralds its return by a renewed and enormous increase in unemployment. By the end of November unemployment among painters is almost double the annual average. The seasonal fluctuations of unemployment among painters thus precede and foreshadow those which are to come in other occupations[1], in much the same way as in Great Britain (section 24).

Just as in Great Britain, it is among painters that the index of concentration ($\beta = 0.08$) of the seasonal fluctuations is lowest

[1] Painters and masons, whose monthly fluctuations of unemployment are similar in so many points, differ quite noticeably here. In fact, the rate of unemployment among painters is always below that among masons during the months in which unemployment is decreasing, and consistently above during the months in which it is increasing.

and the index of prolongation ($\gamma = 0.82$) is highest. These fluctuations, which appear earliest among them and are most violent among them (and among the masons), are also of longest duration among painters. For ten months (that is, for the whole year except March and October) their rate of unemployment differs from the average for the year by 70 per cent. or more, either above or below.

DENMARK. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY AND AMONG CARPENTERS, 1910-1926

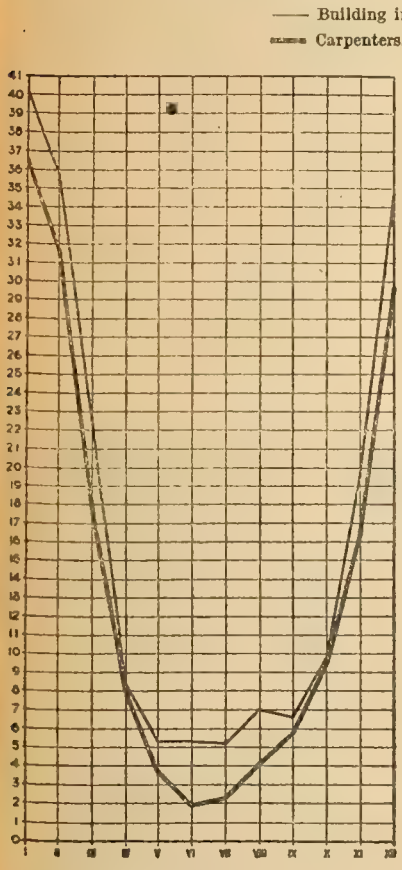


FIGURE 33. UNEMPLOYED PER 100 TRADE UNIONISTS

FIGURE 34. MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

35. The *carpenters* and *joiners* are clearly distinguished from the painters and masons, both by their lower rate of average unemployment and by their less violent monthly fluctuations. At the same time, the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment among carpenters are very similar to those for the whole building industry.

Their maximum is in January; their minimum is in June, with almost the same figure for July. The range of the fluctuations (34.7) is practically the same as that for the building industry (35.0), as is also their standard deviation (11.91 and 12.87 respectively). Their index of concentration (0.10), is at the same time a little higher, and their index of prolongation (0.78) lower, which means that seasonal fluctuations are less prolonged among them than in the building industry as a whole.

DENMARK. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY AND AMONG JOINERS, 1910-1926

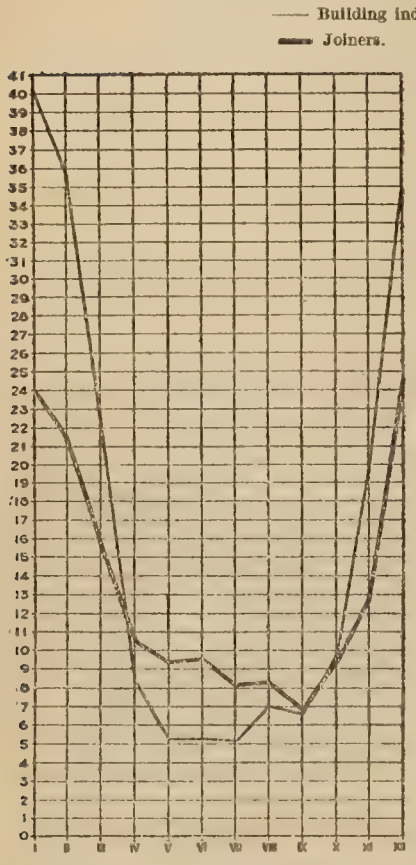


FIGURE 35. UNEMPLOYED PER 100 TRADE UNIONISTS

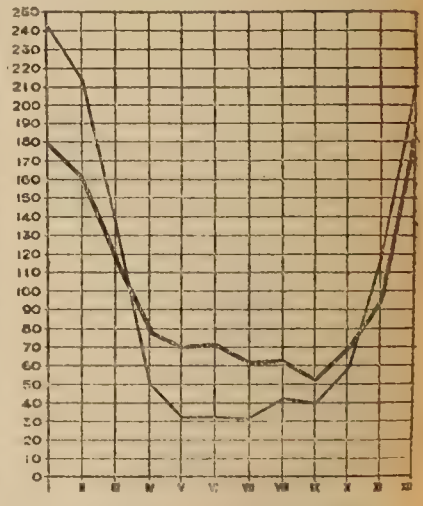


FIGURE 36. MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Joiners form the group which differs most widely from the other occupations in the building industry with regard both to seasonal fluctuations and to annual average unemployment. Their absolute

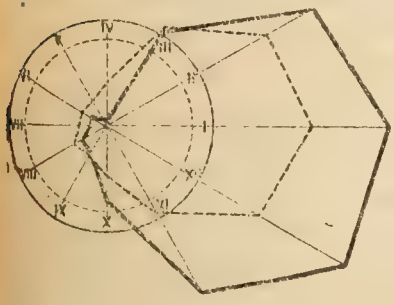
maximum tends to occur in December, their absolute minimum is in September; the curve is not continuous but with abrupt changes. The range of their monthly fluctuations (17.6) is only half that for the building trade as a whole (35.0), and the same is true for the standard deviations (6.19 and 12.87 respectively); their index of prolongation (0.78) is also the lowest.

The set of diagrams given below (Figures 37-40) represents in the form of polar curves (or polygons)[1] the monthly fluctuations of unemployment among painters (Figures 37 and 38) and joiners (Figures 39 and 40), compared with those for the building industry as a whole. These curves show not only that unemployment and

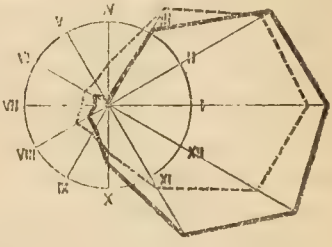
DENMARK. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY, 1910-1926

···· Building industry as a whole.
—— Specified occupations.

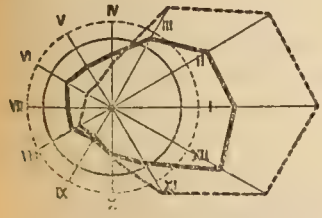
UNEMPLOYED PER 100 TRADE UNIONISTS

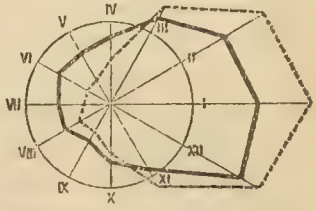


MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT



FIGURES 37 AND 38. PAINTERS





FIGURES 39 AND 40. JOINERS

[1] On the question of these curves, see above, section 12. It may be noted that in the diagrams given here the circles represent the averages for the twelve months of the year. The polar curves are drawn on a smaller scale than the ordinary curves (with rectangular co-ordinates).

its seasonal fluctuations are much greater for painters and much less for joiners than for the building industry as a whole, but also that the general course of these fluctuations is very different for the different groups. It will be seen that it is precisely in the months of high unemployment (in winter) that the rate of unemployment is still higher for painters than for the whole industry. Matters are just the contrary for the joiners : compared with the building industry as a whole, their rate of unemployment is much lower in winter and much higher in summer.

It certainly seems that the joiners are outside the limits of the building industry. Here again the phenomenon is not without some analogy to the situation observed in Great Britain (in particular for plumbers).

Germany

36. The figures used for Germany are those regularly published in the *Reichsarbeitsblatt*, relating to unemployment among members of trade union organisations. Those selected refer to the Federation of Building Workers and the Painters' (and Polishers') Union, which are the most important organisations, and the monthly statistics for which cover a fair number of years. Figures referring to painters have been published in the *Reichsarbeitsblatt* for the period from the end of July 1915 to the end of August 1927. In order to have a number of complete years, the twelve years from September 1915 to August 1927 inclusive have been taken, and the figures of unemployment in the Building Federation, and in all trade union organisations, given here for purposes of comparison refer to the same period. It will be seen that the word " building " here has not its complete generic sense covering all the various occupations in the industry ; the painters who will be considered did not belong to the Building Federation during the period under review. It must also be remembered that the occupational structure of this Federation and of the trade union organisations as a whole have not remained exactly the same during these twelve years. The shortness of the period covered and the extent of the disturbances of a non-seasonal nature (war, revolution, demobilisation, inflation, deflation, rationalisation, etc.) must also be borne in mind. It is therefore clear, quite apart from all other reservations, that the numerical results can have only an extremely approximate value, and that any conclusions drawn from them will necessarily be open to question.

37. Subject to all these reservations, the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in Germany for the period under consideration, calculated by the usual method of extended medians, are shown in table V and Figures 41 and 42.[1]

TABLE V. GERMANY. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, SEPTEMBER 1915 TO AUGUST 1927

Month, etc.	Number of unemployed per 100 trade unionists			Monthly index of unemployment		
	All industries together	Building	Painters	All industries together	Building	Painters
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Jan.	4.7	15.2	14.3	1.31	2.58	2.42
Feb.	4.8	14.3	12.8	1.33	2.42	2.17
March	3.9	7.9	6.0	1.08	1.34	1.02
April	3.9	4.7	4.0	1.08	0.80	0.68
May	3.5	3.1	1.7	0.97	0.53	0.29
June	3.2	2.7	2.1	0.89	0.46	0.36
July	3.2	2.9	2.0	0.89	0.49	0.34
Aug.	3.7	3.2	2.9	1.03	0.54	0.49
Sept.	2.8	1.9	2.5	0.78	0.32	0.42
Oct.	2.8	2.1	4.2	0.78	0.36	0.71
Nov.	2.8	4.6	6.9	0.78	0.78	1.17
Dec.	3.8	8.3	11.6	1.06	1.41	1.97
Average of 12 months	3.6	5.9	5.9	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	Feb. 4.8 / Jan. 4.7	Jan. 15.2	Jan. 14.3	Feb. 1.33 / Jan. 1.31	Jan. 2.58	Jan. 2.42
Minimum	Sept. / Nov. 2.8	Sept. 1.9	May 1.7	Sept. / Nov. 0.78	Sept. 0.32	May 0.29
x (*max—min*)	2.0	13.3	12.6	0.55	2.26	2.13
$\frac{\alpha}{min}$	0.71	7.00	7.41	0.71	7.00	7.41
σ	0.66	4.42	4.35	0.18	0.75	0.74
β (index of concentration)	0.15	0.14	0.13	0.15	0.14	0.13
γ (index of prolongation)	0.70	0.72	0.74	0.70	0.72	0.74

The following points in the table may be noted.

(*a*) The curve of the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in Germany for each of the three categories of workers considered

[1] The number of trade unionists covered by the enquiry at the end of August 1927 was 3,922,600 for all the occupations considered, 374,500 for the Building Federation, and 44,400 for the Painters' and Polishers' Union.

has two maxima. As in Great Britain and Denmark the absolute maximum is in January[1], but in Germany there is a second maximum in August for all three classes. The two minima are in May-June and September (as in numerous occupations in the building industry in Great Britain); this latter month also marks the absolute minimum of employment during the year for all industries as well as for the building industry alone.

GERMANY. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, 1915-1927

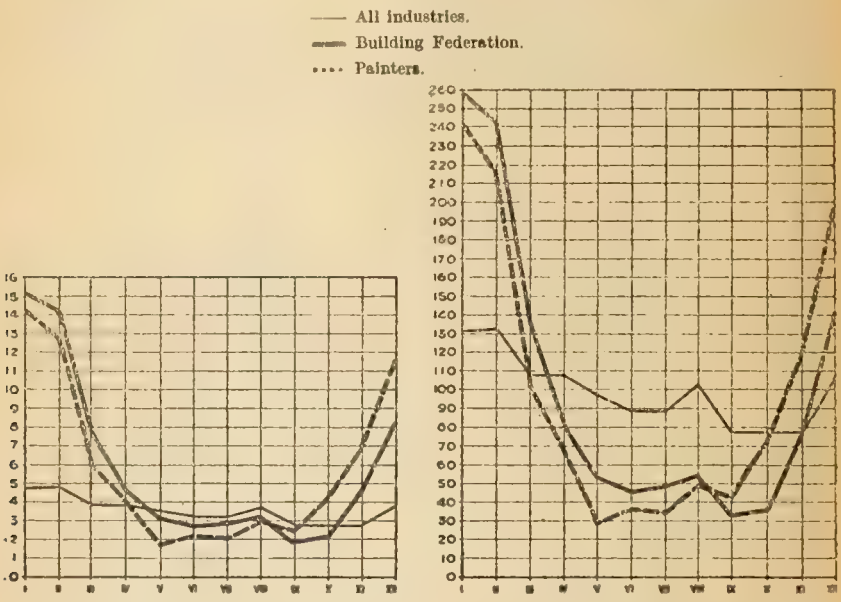


FIGURE 41. UNEMPLOYED PER 100 TRADE UNIONISTS

FIGURE 42. MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

(*b*) In Germany, as in the other countries already considered, the building industry has a higher annual average rate of unemployment and much more violent seasonal fluctuations than the industry of the country as a whole. The range of these fluctuations (13.3 and 2.0 respectively) as well as the standard deviation (4.42 and 0.66) are approximately seven times as great in the building industry as in all industries taken together.

[1] According to the table February has a slightly higher rate of unemployment for all industries than January (4.8 and 4.7 respectively), but this is another case of the imperfect elimination of non-seasonal influences already referred to. In point of fact, during the twelve years under consideration unemployment in February exceeded that in January in three years only (1916, 1921, and 1923): in every other year the maximum unemployment was in January.

(*c*) While the annual average rate of unemployment in the building industry in Germany is less than that in Great Britain or Denmark, the intensity of the seasonal fluctuations is intermediate between those of the other two countries. As far as comparisons between the figures for the three countries are admissible, the German fluctuations appear to be four times as violent as in Great Britain, but little more than one-third of those in Denmark (the range of the monthly fluctuations in the building industry being 3.6 in Great Britain, 13.3 in Germany, and 35.0 in Denmark, and the standard deviations 1.22, 4.42, and 12.87 respectively).

(*d*) Here also the index of prolongation of the monthly fluctuations is slightly higher for the building industry than for all industries taken together. This index is however lower than for the two countries examined above. Unemployment in the building industry exceeds the annual average rate during the four months from December to March only.

(*e*) In contrast to what has been found above in other countries, painters in Germany do not seem to suffer either from a higher average rate of unemployment or from more violent seasonal fluctuations than other occupations in the building industry. The average rate is exactly the same for the Building Federation and for painters (5.9 per 100 trade unionists for both); the range of the fluctuations (13.3 and 12.6 respectively) and their standard deviations (4.42 and 4.35) are also practically the same (even very slightly lower for painters).

It is therefore all the more interesting to find that in Germany too, as in Great Britain and Denmark, the painters are none the less the precursors of unemployment movements. As early as the month of March, while other branches of the building industry are still in the grip of extensive seasonal unemployment, the figure for painters has already fallen to half what it was in the preceding month, and has almost reached the average for the year. As in Great Britain, they reach their absolute minimum of unemployment as early as May, considerably before the other workers in the building industry. Unemployment among them then rises again long before that for other occupations, and is the first to exceed the annual average rate (in November) and the first (in December) to reach a figure double the average rate.

As in the other countries, the index of concentration of the monthly fluctuations (0.13) is lower and the index of prolongation (0.74) is higher for painters than for the other workers in the building industry; in other words, while the fluctuations among

painters in Germany are less violent than those for all the occupations in the building industry taken together, they are nevertheless of greater duration. Thus, for instance, unemployment differing by more than 50 per cent. from the average annual rate (either above or below) lasts for eight months among the painters, and for six months among the other occupations ; unemployment differing by more than 60 per cent. from the average (above or below) lasts for six months among painters. and for four months among the others, and so on.

In view of the very unfavourable conditions of study in the period under observation, it is rather remarkable that the facts found in Germany should correspond in so many respects with those in other countries.

Netherlands

38. For the Netherlands it is only possible to compare the whole building industry without distinction of occupations with all the industries of the country taken together. The building industry, moreover, is taken in a wide sense, and includes also the construction and maintenance of roads. The monthly figures, which are taken from the *Maandschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek*, do not show the position at the end of the month, but give " weekly averages ", and take into account the duration of unemployment in each week. They express " the ratio (as a percentage) of the actual number of days of unemployment to the total maximum number of days during which all the workers could have been unemployed, i.e. six times the number of workers ". In other words, they show the number of man-days of unemployment per 100 possible working man-days, or the frequency (as a percentage) of days of unemployment. These data refer chiefly to workers belonging to unemployment insurance funds, but they also cover a certain number of other workers " included in the enquiry ". The period to be examined here covers the fifteen years 1913-1927, that is, exactly the same period as for Great Britain. The method employed for calculating the monthly fluctuations is again that of extended medians. The absolute number of workers considered (members of funds and others) for December 1927 was 292,571 for all occupations, and 44,637 for the building industry.

39. The monthly fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry and in all industries together in the Netherlands are shown in table VI and Figures 43 and 44.

TABLE VI. NETHERLANDS. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, 1913-1927

Month, etc.	Days of unemployment per 100 working days		Monthly index of unemployment	
	All industries together	Building	All industries together	Building
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Jan.	12.5	21.3	1.62	2.17
Feb.	10.9	19.4	1.42	1.98
March	7.8	9.2	1.01	0.94
April	6.7	5.2	0.87	0.53
May	6.0	4.3	0.78	0.44
June	5.8	3.7	0.75	0.38
July	6.1	4.1	0.79	0.42
Aug.	6.1	5.4	0.79	0.55
Sept.	6.1	6.9	0.79	0.70
Oct.	6.1	7.7	0.79	0.79
Nov.	7.7	11.4	1.00	1.16
Dec.	11.0	18.9	1.43	1.93
Average of 12 months	7.7	9.8	1.00	1.00
Maximum	Jan. 12.5	Jan. 21.3	Jan. 1.62	Jan. 2.17
Minimum	June 5.8	June 3.7	June 0.75	June 0.38
$\bar{\alpha}$ (*max—min*)	6.7	17.6	0.87	1.79
$\frac{\alpha}{min}$	1.16	4.76	1.16	4.76
σ	2.27	6.21	0.29	0.63
β (index of concentration)	0.15	0.12	0.15	0.12
γ (index of prolongation)	0.70	0.76	0.70	0.76

The following points may be noted.

(*a*) In so far as figures compiled on different bases can give an idea of the main lines of the phenomena observed, it appears that the average rates of unemployment both in the building industry and in all industries are much lower in the Netherlands than in Denmark but are considerably higher than those in Great Britain and Germany.

(*b*) The same is true of the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment. Their absolute intensity is about half that in Denmark (the ranges of the fluctuations in the building industry are 17.6 and 35.0 in the two countries respectively and in all industries 6.7 and 14.1 respectively; the standard deviations in the building

industry are 6.21 and 12.87 and in all industries 2.27 and 5.12 respectively) ; it is, however, about a third greater than in Germany and five times as great as in Great Britain (cf. tables II and V).

NETHERLANDS. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN ALL INDUSTRIES AND THE BUILDING INDUSTRY, 1913-1927

—— All industries.
- - - - Building industry.

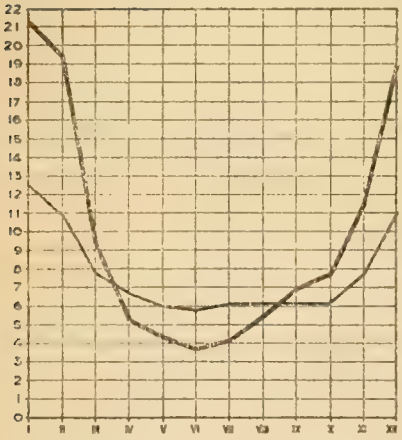


FIGURE 43. DAYS OF UNEMPLOYMENT PER 100 WORKING DAYS

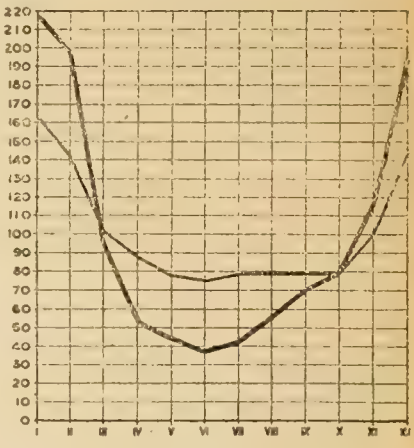


FIGURE 44. MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

The Netherlands occupies the same relative position among these countries if the ratios of the range of the fluctuations and the standard deviation to the respective annual average rate in each country are compared. The index of prolongation of the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry in the Netherlands (0.76) is lower than in Denmark (0.82) and higher than in Germany (0.72). In other words, the Netherlands comes between Denmark and the other two countries discussed above as regards both the intensity and the duration of the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment.

(*c*) In the Netherlands, as in all the other countries considered, the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry are much more violent (the range and standard deviation being almost three times as great) than in all industries in the country taken together (respective ranges 17.6 and 6.7 ; standard deviations 6.21 and 2.27).

(*d*) Here, as in the other countries, the index of concentration of the seasonal fluctuations is lower for the building industry than for all industries together (0.12 and 0.15 respectively), i.e. the

fluctuations are more prolonged in the building industry (the index of prolongation is 0.76 for building and 0.70 for all industries).

(*e*) In the Netherlands the curve of the monthly fluctuations of unemployment has only a single peak. As in all the other countries studied, the maximum falls in January, while the minimum, as in most of the other countries, is in June. The curve moves very abruptly (thus, for example, unemployment in March is only about half that in the preceding month, while in April and May it is only half the figure for March) and is very asymmetric; it could not therefore be represented by a sine curve without undue distortion of the facts. Unemployment exceeds the annual average during the four months from November to February; for the rest of the year it remains below this average. Thus in the Netherlands unemployment in the building industry is already below the average for the year in March, which is earlier than in other countries.

Italy

40. Italy regularly publishes unemployment statistics at the end of each month for the whole Kingdom and for each of its 76 constituent districts; separate data are therefore available for Rome, Milan, Turin, Genoa, etc. These statistics make no distinction between various occupations, but are grouped into important branches of industry. It is not therefore possible to make divisions within the branch of the construction industries. Further, as has already been briefly mentioned (section 7), this group in the Italian classification includes not only building in the strict sense and other construction work but also the preparation of the lime, cement, marble, glass, etc., used for construction work (*Industrie che lavorano i minerali, e construzioni edilizie, stradali, idrauliche*). It must also be noted that these statistics do not give the percentage unemployed among insured workers but only the absolute number of unemployed. As they have only been published regularly since June 1921, up to the end of 1927 data for only six complete years (1922-1927) are available. The method of extended medians is therefore, strictly speaking, inapplicable and, as in table I for Great Britain (which covers exactly the same years), the characteristic unemployment for each month has had to be determined by the simple process of arithmetic means, with all the defects it involves for a problem of this kind and for such an exceptional period. It follows that a table dealing with the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in Italy will be drawn

up on almost entirely different bases from the other tables in this article, and that comparison between the Italian and the other tables is necessarily subject to very explicit reservations, admitting that it is possible in a general way.

The results are shown in table VII and Figures 45 and 46.

TABLE VII. ITALY. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, 1922-1927

Month, etc.	Registered unemployed (absolute figures)			Unemployed in construction industries per cent. of all unemployed	Monthly index of unemployment		
	Total	In construction industries	In other industries		All industries	Construction industries	Other industries
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Jan.	302,904	85,087	217,817	27.4	1.37	1.57	1.31
Feb.	284,176	78,970	205,206	26.8	1.29	1.46	1.23
March	246,336	63,701	182,635	24.3	1.12	1.18	1.10
April	221,527	51,222	170,305	21.2	1.00	0.95	1.02
May	206,829	43,460	163,369	18.8	0.94	0.80	0.98
June	183,747	37,760	145,987	18.5	0.83	0.70	0.88
July	171,274	36,048	135,226	19.1	0.78	0.67	0.81
Aug.	177,113	38,528	138,585	19.7	0.80	0.71	0.83
Sept.	181,178	42,577	138,601	21.5	0.82	0.79	0.83
Oct.	194,781	47,098	147,683	22.4	0.88	0.87	0.89
Nov.	225,288	56,966	168,322	23.9	1.02	1.05	1.01
Dec.	251,496	68,870	182,626	26.0	1.14	1.27	1.10
Average of 12 months	220,554	54,190	166,364	22.5	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	Jan. 302,904	Jan. 85,087	Jan. 217,817	Jan. 27.4	Jan. 1.37	Jan. 1.57	Jan. 1.31
Minimum	July 171,274 / June 183,747	July 36,048	July 135,226 / June 145,987	June 18.5	July 0.78 / June 0.83	July 0.67	July 0.81 / June 0.88
α (*max—min*)	131,630	49,039	82,591	8.9	0.59	0.90	0.50
$\frac{\alpha}{min}$	0.77	1.36	0.61	0.48	0.77	1.36	0.61
σ	41,400	15,900	25,800	3.05	0.19	0.29	0.16
β (index of concentration)	0.13	0.11	0.14	0.10	0.13	0.11	0.14
γ (index of prolongation)	0.73	0.77	0.72	0.80	0.73	0.77	0.72

41. The following conclusions may be drawn.

(*a*) For the period under consideration the workers in the construction industries constituted on the average almost a quarter (22.5 per cent.) of all the registered unemployed in Italy. Their proportion among the workers of the Kingdom cannot possibly be so high, and it must therefore be concluded that in Italy, as in the other countries examined, the average annual unemployment

among workers in the building industry (and in other construction industries) is proportionately much higher than among workers in all other occupations taken together.

ITALY. MONTHLY FLUCTUATIONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, 1922-1927

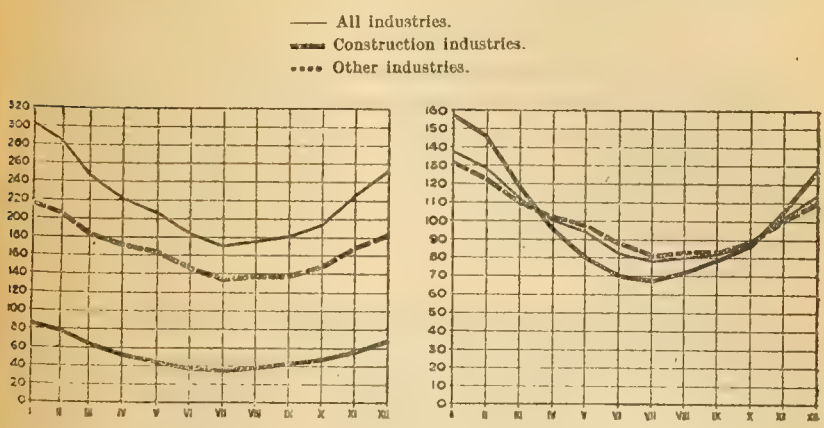


FIGURE 45. NUMBER UNEMPLOYED (IN THOUSANDS)

FIGURE 46. MONTHLY INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

(*b*) In Italy also the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment in the construction industries are much more violent than in all other occupations taken together. This can be seen at once from Figure 46 or from columns (6), (7), and (8) of table VII. In fact, during all the months in which unemployment exceeds the annual average, the monthly index of unemployment for workers in the construction industries is higher than that for all other industries; during the months when unemployment is below the annual average the monthly index for those workers is constantly below that for the other workers. In both cases unemployment differs more widely from the annual average in the construction industries than in all other industries.

The changes in the number of unemployed workers in the construction industries are more or less parallel to the changes in the absolute total number of unemployed in the Kingdom, but with this difference, as shown by the ratios in column (5), that during the months in which unemployment is increasing it rises more for workers in the construction industries than for others, and similarly when unemployment is decreasing it falls further for them than for other workers.

The difference in the intensity of the monthly fluctuations is measured by the range of the monthly fluctuations (0.90 times the

annual average for construction industries and 0.50 for other industries) and by the standard deviations (respectively 0.29 and 0.16 — more exactly 0.156). The monthly fluctuations in the construction industries are thus almost twice as great as for all other industries together.

(*c*) It is not without interest to note further that in Italy too the index of concentration of the seasonal fluctuations is lower and the index of prolongation higher for the construction industries (0.11 and 0.77 respectively) than for all other industries (0.14 and 0.72 respectively); i.e. in Italy too seasonal fluctuations are more prolonged in building than in industry as a whole. These indexes occupy an intermediate position among those of the other countries examined here.

(*d*) The curve of the monthly fluctuations of unemployment in Italy, both for the construction industries and for all other industries taken together, has only a single peak. As in all the other countries considered, the maximum unemployment occurs in January, while the minimum for the building industry is in July, with the figure for June very nearly the same.[1] In Italy, as in the other countries considered (except Denmark), the phase during which unemployment in the construction industries is considerably higher than the average for the year lasts for four months (December to March); in both April and November unemployment differs from the annual average by 5 per cent. only, either below (April) or above (November); during the other months of the year it is considerably below the average.

(*e*) Compared with the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment elsewhere and so far as the monthly indexes allow of drawing conclusions, the fluctuations in the construction industries in Italy seem to be less than in other countries, except Great Britain (α being 2.1 in Denmark, 2.13 in Germany, 1.79 in the Netherlands, 0.48 in Great Britain, and 0.50 in Italy; σ being 0.77, 0.74, 0.63, 0.16 and 0.29 in these countries respectively). The fact that the Italian classification of industries includes under the same heading construction work properly so called and certain other industries

[1] For all industries together (and for all industries other than the construction industries) it is rather in June that the absolute minimum is found. This was indeed the case in five out of the six years examined. It was only in 1925 that the number of unemployed in Italy was greater in June than in July.

can naturally provide only a partial explanation of this smaller intensity of the seasonal fluctuations.[1]

Summary

42. The statistics analysed above were based on very different methods of observation and calculation. Nevertheless the reader must surely have been struck by the repeated observation of certain facts. There is good reason to believe that if the statistics were more uniform, and in particular if the same system of occupational classification were in use everywhere, or, in other words,

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[1] Curve fitting by a sine curve is possible for the Italian unemployment curves without undue distortion of the facts because they are relatively smoother, more symmetrical (maximum in January and minimum in July), and have each only one peak. If we take the series of monthly indexes of unemployment, and let y_a, y_c, y_o denote the indexes for all industries, the construction industries, and all other industries respectively, the process of curve fitting will give the following equations:

$$y_a = 1.00 + 0.245 \sin \Phi,$$
$$y_c = 1.00 + 0.394 \sin \Phi,$$
$$y_o = 1.00 + 0.198 \sin \Phi.$$

These formulae show clearly that the monthly fluctuations in the construction industries (y_c) are twice as violent as those in other industries (y_o). The average difference between the given figures and those of the sine curve (the sum of the differences divided by the sum of the terms of either series) is 7.3 per cent. for the construction industries, 5.6 per cent. for other industries, and 5.8 per cent. for all industries. Not only are these differences by no means negligible, but it must be noted that here again curve fitting gives figures which reduce the index of unemployment considerably when it is really at its maximum (January-February) and increase it very much in autumn (September-December).

It is rather column (5) of table VII (unemployed in the construction industries per cent. of all unemployed) that lends itself to representation by a sine curve. For the figures in this column we get the equation:

$$y = 22.5 + 4.15 \sin \Phi.$$

The actual figures as compared with those calculated from this equation are as follows:

End of month	Actual figures	Calculated figures	End of month	Actual figures	Calculated figures
Nov.	23.9	24.6	May	18.8	20.4
Dec.	26.0	26.1	June	18.5	18.9
Jan.	27.4	26.6	July	19.1	18.4
Feb.	26.8	26.1	Aug.	19.7	18.9
March	24.3	24.6	Sept.	21.5	20.4
April	21.2	22.5	Oct.	22.4	22.5

The average difference between the two series is 3.1 per cent. of the sum of either. Here again, however, the great divergences at certain important points will be noted, viz. in April-May (great decrease of unemployment in the construction industry), in August-September (beginning of the increase), and in January-February (maximum unemployment).

if the term " building industry " always corresponded to the same basis of reality, then the similarity between the facts observed in the various countries would undoubtedly have been even closer. Such as they are, the chief conclusions we have reached concerning the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry may be summed up as follows.

A. *Intensity of Seasonal Fluctuations of Unemployment*

(*a*) The phenomenon varies to an enormous extent from one country to another.

Thus we have found, subject to corrections required by the insufficient comparability of the unemployment figures in different countries, that compared with those of Great Britain the seasonal fluctuations in the rate of unemployment in Germany are three or four times as great, in the Netherlands five times, and in Denmark ten times as great. The fluctuations in Italy also appear to be greater than in Great Britain, but less than in the other countries mentioned.

(*b*) In all these countries the intensity of the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment in the building industry is much greater than for all industries in the country taken together, and *a fortiori* all the other industries. This difference between building and the other industries is so marked that it cannot be attributed exclusively or even chiefly to the fact that every system of grouping different industries must, as was pointed out at the beginning of this study, to some extent conceal the seasonal fluctuations which occur in these industries. Even when this is allowed for, the difference between the building industry and the other industries is still very considerable. Moreover, the average annual rate of unemployment in the building industry is generally much higher than that for all other industries taken together.

B. *Duration of Seasonal Fluctuations of Unemployment*

(*a*) The variations in this respect between the different countries are by no means negligible ; they are, however, of limited extent. In comparison with the wide variations of the indexes of intensity of the seasonal fluctuations (α and σ), the index of prolongation (γ) may be considered as relatively stable ; for the different countries covered it varies between 0.72 and 0.85. The period during which unemployment is more than 10 per cent. above the

annual average is four months in all the countries covered, except in Denmark where it rises to five.

(*b*) In all the countries considered the index of concentration of the seasonal fluctuations is a little less for the building industry than for all industries or, in other words, these fluctuations are more prolonged in the building industry than in all other industries taken together. It would, however, be useful to examine how the grouping of branches of industry or of occupations with different seasonal features affects the general index of concentration or of prolongation of their seasonal fluctuations.

C. *General Shape of the Curve of Monthly Fluctuations of Unemployment*

(*a*) The curve of the monthly fluctuations of unemployment has generally a single peak. In certain countries, however, and particularly in certain occupations of the building industry, it has a second; but in no case does this second maximum reach the average rate for the year. There is therefore nowhere any question of a second slack season.

(*b*) The maximum of the curve in all the countries considered is in January. The minimum is generally in June or, in rarer cases, in July. If the curve has a secondary maximum this generally appears in August and the second minimum comes in September. In Germany the September minimum actually seems to be lower than that of June.

(*c*) The curve is very asymmetrical and sometimes moves very abruptly (in particular from February to April or May and from October to December).[1]

D. *Various Occupations in the Building Industry*

(*a*) The various occupations in the building industry differ from each other very widely not only in their average rate of unemployment but also in their seasonal fluctuations. It may however be pointed out that it is usually the same occupations that have both the highest average rate of unemployment and the most violent and most prolonged seasonal fluctuations. It may therefore be presumed that there is some degree of causal

[1] It follows that the process of curve fitting by an undulatory and symmetrical curve like the sine curve can very rarely be used here.

connection, direct or indirect, between the average rate of unemployment and the seasonal fluctuations.

(*b*) Of all the occupations in the building industry that of painters seems to have the highest average rate of unemployment and the most violent seasonal fluctuations. It is for painters that the index of prolongation of these fluctuations is highest in all the countries considered, and perhaps the most characteristic fact is that their seasonal fluctuations always precede those of the other occupations in the building industry, both when unemployment is increasing and when it is decreasing.

(*c*) Labourers and masons are the two classes that seem to come nearest to the painters with regard to both their annual average rate and the seasonal nature of their unemployment. The other occupations, and especially those carried on chiefly within doors and belonging partly to other branches of industry (such as plumbers, carpenters, and joiners) would appear, according to the data for Great Britain and Denmark, to have less annual unemployment and smaller seasonal fluctuations than the building industry as a whole. Even the period of the slack season (and of the boom) in some of these occupations coincides only partially with the slack season (or the boom) in other occupations, especially among painters.

* * *

All these results require to be completed, verified, and certainly also corrected by observations made in other countries and more especially in a less disturbed period. Such further study would also make it possible to determine the general trend of the phenomenon, which has necessarily been left entirely in the background in this study.

The Employment of Women in Japanese Industry: II

by
Iwao F. Ayusawa, Ph.D.

The first part of this article[1] *contained a statistical survey of the position of women in Japanese industry (including mining). Conditions of employment (hours of work, overtime, night work, rest periods and holidays, wages) and the relevant legislation are described below. The article will be completed in a subsequent number of the* Review *by sections dealing with hygiene and safety, maternity protection, and the dormitory system.*

Hours of Work

The Normal Working Day

Legal Provisions.

The development of protective labour legislation which resulted either directly or indirectly from the decisions of the Washington Conference of 1919 has been so sudden and phenomenal that the Conference may be considered to have marked the start of a new epoch in this sphere.[2] Some of the most significant legislative changes, including those affecting hours of work, have resulted from the Washington Hours Convention, although it is still unratified by Japan. It will therefore be of interest, in examining the law at present in force on hours of work, to see how far its provisions harmonise or are at variance with the terms of that Convention.

The fundamental Japanese legislation regulating the hours of work in industrial undertakings is the Factory Act, revised in 1923 and in force since 1926. The hours of work in mines are regulated

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIX, No. 2, Feb. 1929, pp. 193-204.

[2] For details, cf. International Labour Office: *Industrial Conditions and Labour Legislation in Japan*, Chapter II. Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 16. Geneva, 1926.

by an Ordinance of the Department of the Interior entitled the Regulations for the employment and relief of miners, revised in 1926[1], and again in 1928. There is as yet no law restricting the hours of work in transport, building trades, commerce, agriculture, fishing, or any other field. It is to be noted first of all that the extension of the Factory Act to factories employing 10 (instead of 15) or more persons was in accordance with the Washington Convention.[2] The result of this amendment was that the number of factories covered by the law rose from 27,076 to 49,649, and the number of workers protected rose from 1,530,244 to 1,703,537.[3] Apart from this, the most important effect of the Hours Convention was that by the revision of 1923 the legal working hours of women and young persons in Japanese mines and factories were reduced by an hour generally. When it is recalled that in 1925 there were as many as 939,000 women workers in factories and over 72,000 in mines[4], making a total of over a million women coming under the revised law, it will be clear that this represents a definite progress in Japanese legislation.

Prior to the enforcement of the revised Factory Act, women and young persons down to the age of 15 might legally be employed for 11 hours a day (i.e. a period of 12 hours in all, including a rest period of at least one hour), in all factories and mines. Since July 1926, under the revised Factory Act, women and young persons under the age of 15[5] may not be employed for more than 10 hours (11 hours in all, including one hour's rest). When the worker is employed in different factories on the same day, the hours of work must be reckoned as a whole for the purpose of applying the above restriction. An employer who contravenes this law is liable to a fine not exceeding 1,000 yen. As the Washington Convention

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[1] *Legislative Series*, 1926, Jap. 2 (B).

[2] Article 9, paragraph (*f*), of the Convention is as follows:

"The provision in Japanese factory legislation limiting its application to places employing fifteen or more persons shall be amended so that such legislation shall apply to places employing ten or more persons."

[3] According to the Japanese Press, the Government had decided to present to the Diet in the winter of 1928 a Bill to amend the Factory Act with a view to extending its application to all factories using motive power, even when the number of workers employed is less than ten. If this Bill is passed a greater number of women will be protected in respect of working hours, night work, maternity, etc.

[4] On 1 October 1927 the number of women workers in factories covered by the Factory Act had risen to 949,039, and that of women in mines had decreased to 66,079.

[5] The age is to be raised to 16 three years after the coming into force of the amended Act, i.e. as from 1 July 1929.

allows a working week of 57 hours, the discrepancy is thus half an hour a day.[1]

This is the general rule, but a number of exceptions to it are allowed. For example, it is provided that the Minister may extend the daily period of employment by not more than 2 hours, so extending the hours of work of women and young persons to as many as 12 a day. This exceptional clause is to remain in force for fifteen years after the coming into operation of the amended Act, i.e. until July 1941. It is provided furthermore than in the case of "seasonal industries involving a special pressure of work" — this applies principally to the textile industry, which, as we have seen, employs the great bulk of young women workers — the employer may, with the special permission of the authorities, extend the hours of work for a specified period by not more than one hour.

In regard to mining, Ordinance No. 30 of the Department of the Interior issued on 1 September 1928[2], to come into effect at once, to amend the Regulations for the employment and relief of miners, prohibits the employment of any workers (men as well as women) for more than 10 hours a day, including an hour's rest, in underground work in mines. It may be noted that this is the first time that any restrictions have been placed on the hours of work of male workers in Japan, all previous restrictions having applied only to women and young persons.

For surface work in the mining industry, the restriction on the hours of work of women and young persons under 15 years of age is the same as for work in factories (maximum 11 hours a day, including a rest period of at least an hour). As in the case of factory legislation, the legal working hours in mines prior to the revision of the Regulations in 1926 were 12 a day, including a rest period of at least an hour. This reduction of an hour a day in the mining industry may again be considered an important progress for Japan.

Actual Working Hours.

The hours actually worked by Japanese women vary from industry to industry, so that no generalisation can be made. However, if we take only the working hours of women in factories

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[1] Article 9, paragraph (*b*), of the Convention is as follows:

"The actual working hours of persons of fifteen years of age or over in any public or private industrial undertaking, or in any branch thereof, shall not exceed fifty-seven in the week, except that in the raw-silk industry the limit may be sixty hours in the week."

[2] Cf. *Kampo* (Official Gazette), 1 Sept. 1928.

where the Factory Act applies, we find that the situation is somewhat encouraging, inasmuch as there is a tendency for working hours to decrease gradually from year to year. The most recent official report[1] of the Japanese Government states :

> We witness the gratifying phenomenon that an increasing number of employers are extending the benefits of the protective provisions (e.g. on working hours, accident compensation, etc.) of the law to adult male workers, taking into consideration the development of industrial efficiency and the progress of social thought. The factory inspectors are endeavouring not merely to enforce the actual provisions of the law but to bring about a better understanding between employer and employed, so as to expand and fulfil the true spirit of the Factory Act to limit the hours of work.

Sound and harmonious social progress can be hoped for only when such a condition as is reported above prevails. The fact that there has been a tendency to shorten working hours is illustrated by the absence of any appreciable fall in productivity resulting from the reduction of working hours which was imposed by the revised Factory Act. The report cited above explains this by observing that before the revised Act was brought into operation, many employers had already prepared for the obligatory reduction by beginning to shorten hours, either voluntarily or at the suggestion of the authorities. If therefore we find no marked change in actual working hours when the revised Act came into force (1 July 1926), it does not mean that the law had no effect. It means, on the contrary, much more, namely, that the law had begun to exert its influence on working hours even before it came into force.

Generally, so far as the factories under the Factory Act are concerned, it is reported officially that textile mills are working up to the maximum limit of hours allowed by the Act. To be more precise, filatures, which employ the largest proportion of women workers among the various textile mills, are for the most part working 12 hours (including the obligatory rest period of at least an hour). It is important to note here that there are nearly 360,000 women workers in Japanese filatures employing 10 or more operatives.[2] Among them are over 17,000 girls under 14, 35,400 girls between 14 and 15, and altogether 97,180 girls under 16 years of age. Statistics of the actual working hours of all these girls are not available, but it must be assumed from the statement above that most

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[1] Bureau of Social Affairs : *Kojo Kantoku Nenpo* (Annual Factory Inspection Report) for 1926, pp. 41-42. 1928.

[2] Cf. *Rodo Jiho*, July 1928, p. 19.

of them are normally working the maximum hours allowed by the law.

According to the same official report, in other textile mills generally, 11 hours are worked, including always a rest period of at least an hour. The report adds that "rarely, there are cases of still shorter working days, of 10 or 9 hours". It may be recalled here that in Japan, in addition to the 360,000 women in filatures, there are at present 450,000 women in other textile mills, including about 205,000 girls under 16 years of age, almost all of whom have thus a working day of 10 or 11 hours, 9 hours being found only in "rare" cases, and that these figures refer solely to factories employing 10 or more workers.

In other industries the situation is less serious than in the textile industry. The factory inspection report is couched in optimistic terms. It states in part as follows:

In factories other than textile, owing to the presence of comparatively small numbers of "protected" workers (i.e. women and young persons under 15 years of age), the factories under the Factory Act are very few in number. Nevertheless, the spread of social thought has promoted on the one hand the intelligence of employers and on the other the workers' movement, and this has brought about the reduction of working hours to a greater extent than in the textile industry. We witness already the spread of the 8-hour day in more factories than hitherto. Most factories have made 10 hours (including the rest hour) the basic working day.

The following table shows the working hours in various industries:

AVERAGE DAILY WORKING HOURS IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES IN JAPAN, 1923-1927[1]

Industrial group	1923[2]	1924	1925	1926	1927
	h. m.	h. m.	h. m.	h. m.	h. m.
Textiles	11 27	11 19	11 26	11 19	11 11
Machines and tools	9 50	9 53	9 49	9 48	9 49
Chemicals	10 23	10 31	10 30	10 16	10 14
Food and drink	10 43	10 39	10 35	10 36	10 27
Gas, electricity, metal refining	9 37	10 14	10 27	10 23	9 46
Miscellaneous	10 20	10 11	10 12	?	?
Average	10 29	10 26	10 32	10 32	10 26

[1] The working hours include a rest period of at least an hour, as explained more fully in later pages. The figures up to 1925 are from *Rodo Tokei Yoran*, 1928 edition, p. 109. The figures for 1926 and 1927 are from *Chingin Bukka Tokei Geppo* (also published by the Statistical Bureau), March 1927, pp. 1-2, and June 1928, pp. 1-2. Owing to the difference of source, the factories and workers covered by the two periods are unfortunately not the same.

[2] July-December.

Official periodical reports on the working hours of miners have been published only as from April 1927, although reports on the number of days worked per month by miners have always been given periodically in official publications. Consequently it is not possible to determine from statistics the effect of the legal reduction of working hours in mines. We give below the figures reported for some eighty mines, employing altogether about 123,600 miners, of whom approximately 103,000 are men and 20,000 women, during the period April-October 1927. These working hours should therefore be considered applicable to both men and women.

AVERAGE DAILY WORKING HOURS IN JAPANESE MINES, APRIL-OCTOBER 1927[1]

Mines	Underground workers	Surface workers	Average
	h. m.	h. m.	h. m.
Metal	8 20	10 09	9 15
Coal	10 31	10 46	10 38
Oil	—	10 06	10 06
Others	9 40	10 20	10 00
Average	9 49	10 30	10 10

[1] *Rodo Tokei Yoran*, 1928 edition, pp. 120-121. The working hours include a rest period of at least an hour. Later figures available at the moment of writing do not distinguish between underground and surface workers, and are therefore not given here.

As regards the general working hours of women employed in places other than mines and factories covered by the Factory Act, no recent official statistics are available.[1] In this respect the observations of foreigners are worthy of note. We may quote from a little book written only recently by an Englishman who has spent many years in Japan.[2] He says :

> Hours of work vary so widely that it is impossible to generalise...
> In the busy season girls in the silk factories will often sit — without back support — for 14 to 16 hours a day over steaming kettles of putrid-smelling cocoons. In the weaving factories 11 to 12 hours is the average ; and this is true also of the cotton mills, though in these latter as much as 18 hours a day is not unknown. The worst conditions, both as regards hours and conditions of work, are found in the match factories.

[1] The Chambers of Commerce and Industry give monthly reports on workers' wages in various districts, and the hours of work of women workers are mentioned there, but only incidentally.

[2] Cf. Walter F. FRANCE : *Industrialism in Japan*, p. 17. London, 1928.

Let it be repeated that these conditions are not to be considered in comparison with our own. For not only is the work carried out in a more leisurely way, but also, whereas we in England look with horror on such sweated labour now, we have only achieved this mind as a result of the experience of the benefit of good conditions both to the worker and to industry itself. Japan at present knows no such experience, and her workers who are drawn from the fields are only used to long and arduous work.

Though unfortunately this little book contains frequent inaccuracies on points of technical detail, the above statement may be considered as suggestive of the true picture. It reminds us that in treating the labour problem in Japan, a thing that must not be forgotten is the social background, and in particular the age-long customs of the people. The situation cannot be understood if due account is not taken of the fact that until sixty years ago the Japanese people were living under the feudal system, and that the industrial revolution is still in progress in Japan. Long hours under such circumstances must not always be taken as something forced on or abhorred by the worker to any such degree as in the West. Whether they consider it a good or a bad practice, workers by sheer force of habit will remain at work long hours, dragging along in a leisurely way, and this will continue until they awaken to the true significance of a shorter working day — an awakening which will only come with the growing repugnance to the noise, nervous strain, and fatigue of modern industrialism, with the rise of sound trade unionism, and with advanced labour legislation.

Overtime

The extension of the working hours of women and young persons beyond 11 and up to the limit of 13 hours a day (always including a rest period of at least an hour) is allowed under section 8 of the revised Factory Act in various emergencies which are specified in the Act. Overtime may be worked either with or without the sanction of the authorities according to the circumstances. Such cases of extension of working hours, according to the factory inspection report[1], increased considerably in the half-year July-December 1926 after the revised Factory Act came into force, as compared with the previous year. In the prefecture of Ehimé working hours were extended in 83 cases to 12 hours, and in Niigata in 25 cases to 13 hours, both for a period of three months, in the weaving mills. The reasons given in applying for the official

[1] *Koio Kantoku Nenpo*, 1926, p. 45.

sanction for the extension were almost identical in the two prefectures. The employers pleaded that floods had obliged them to close the factories, and that, with the reduced production that resulted, they were unable to meet the orders received before the floods if they continued to work the legal hours only. Besides these, there were no less than 1,915 cases of extension of working hours beyond 11 and up to the limit of 13 hours a day (on not more than seven days in a month) by simply informing the authorities of the overtime on each occasion in advance. This was an increase of 446 cases as compared with the previous year.

Overtime as described above was worked in 28 out of 46 prefectures throughout Japan. It was most common in textile mills, where there were 1,387 cases in all. The reasons advanced for overtime were of every imaginable kind, such as pressure of the date of delivery of the goods; retarded arrival of raw materials; insufficient supply of electricity; damage to machinery causing insufficient production to meet the order in time; agricultural or fishing season reducing the number of factory operatives by their return to their homes; fête days with a high absence rate; etc. The explanation for the large proportion of overtime worked in textile mills is that the workers have not yet outgrown the habit of long hours. They would rather earn more wages than reduce their working hours. The employer at the same time has a tendency to allow overtime work up to the legal maximum, simply from the profit motive. However, the factory inspection report adds that overtime of an hour or two is worked on an average for three or five days only, and not for seven days a month as legally permitted. Moreover, the authorities are encouraging the employers to give as long rest periods as possible when the workers work overtime in order to protect their health.

Besides these cases, the Japanese law allows overtime for "seasonal industries". During 1926 there were 974 cases of overtime allowed for factories in their busy seasons, or an increase of 267 cases over the previous year. Women workers in filatures in such textile districts as Nagano furnish typical examples of overtime in the busy season. The permission is usually given for the period June-October, and women and young persons are allowed to work overtime of an hour a day for 50 days during this five-month period.

These figures give a total of 2,997 cases of overtime worked during 1926. Unfortunately there is no means of ascertaining how many women were actually involved, or how many extra hours were worked in the aggregate. Thus the figures are not very signi-

ficant; but, from the description of the numerous circumstances which demanded extra work, it may reasonably be presumed that overtime work for women is more or less common in the most important industries of Japan. The reduction of the limits of overtime is clearly a problem which Japan will have to face sooner or later.

It is however encouraging to read in the factory inspection report that " the local governors of Japan are examining all applications scrupulously and are acting on the principle of refusing the permission whenever the application for permission for overtime work is deemed unreasonable. "[1]

Night Work

The Factory Act as revised in 1923 prohibits the employment of women and young persons under 15 years of age[2] between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. For three years after the coming into force of the amended Act (i.e. until 1 July 1929) this restriction does not apply in places where workers are employed in two or more shifts. This delay, it is explained, has been necessitated on the one hand by the great earthquake of 1923 which caused almost irreparable losses to Japanese industry, and on the other hand by the readjustments which must be made in the factories before the law takes effect. For women employed in mines, night work will be abolished partly from 1 July 1930 and totally from 1 July 1933, under the Ordinance No. 30 of 1 September 1928.

Even when the prohibition comes into force in 1929, it will not satisfy the terms of the Washington Convention on the employment of women during the night, which applies to all industrial undertakings, while the Japanese Act, as we have seen, applies only to undertakings which employ at least 10 persons, or where the work done is dangerous or injurious to health.

Nevertheless, the decision to abolish night work for women is an instance of the important social progress made by Japan. It is estimated that the employer will have to increase the factory space by at least 30 per cent., extend the dormitory accommodation, increase the factory equipment and staff, etc. Recent press reports from Japan go to show that the employers are making commendable efforts to prepare for the abolition of night work so as to prevent the sudden fall in production that it would otherwise occasion.

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[1] *Kojo Kantoku Nenpo*, 1926, p. 50.

[2] The age is to be raised to 16 on 1 July 1929.

The progress in Japan of legislative reform in regard to night work for women has not been so rapid as in other branches of labour legislation, owing, no doubt, to the great extent to which Japan depends on this form of labour.

In 1926, according to the factory inspection report, there were 196,187 women and young persons under 15, in 379 factories or workshops, who were performing night work. It is stated, however, that these figures already represent a reduction of 296 factories and 57,060 women and young workers as compared with the previous year. In mines, the figures for June 1926 were 42,992 women and 822 young persons engaged in night work, or a total of 43,814.

The following table shows that women in textile mills form a very large majority of the women engaged in night work; it will thus be seen that the proposed abolition of night work will affect the textile industry almost exclusively.

STATISTICS OF NIGHT WORK IN JAPANESE FACTORIES ON 1 OCTOBER 1926[1]

Kind of factory	Factories and workers engaged in night work				Total number of women and young persons under 15 in industry	
	Factories	Women and girls	Boys under 15	Total women and young persons under 15	Women and girls	Boys
Textile:						
Filatures	3	5,776	—	5,776	339,376	1,782
Spinning	172	145,884	568	146,452	220,627	819
Reeling	15	2,301	48	2,349	8,809	135
Silk wadding	—	—	—	—	192	5
Cotton wadding	1	124	—	124	4,134	33
Weaving	135	37,137	180	37,317	207,686	1,474
Dyeing and finishing	2	79	2	81	8,464	590
Knitting	12	1,324	30	1,354	13,570	203
Embroidery	—	—	—	—	7	—
Miscellaneous	2	121	—	121	6,899	18
Total, textile	342	192,746	828	193,574	809,764	5,059
Machine and tool	—	—	—	—	16,781	2,458
Chemical	28	2,111	99	2,210	49,825	2,283
Food and drink	2	12	3	15	15,939	242
Electricity, gas, metal refining	2	2	—	2	347	9
Miscellaneous	5	385	1	386	39,271	2,390
Total	379	195,256	931	196,187	931,927	12,441

[1] *Cf. Kojo Kantoku Nenpo*, 1926, pp. 1, 16-19, and 99. The figures refer to private factories employing 10 or more workers on 1 October 1926. In the factories owned by the State, numbering 429 in October 1926, there were 134,333 workers, but they included only 29,656 women.

Lastly, it must be pointed out that in spite of unmistakable signs of progress, recent reports from Japan indicate that attempts to lower the standard of protection are succeeding. It seems, in fact, that throughout Japan, in all factories, the prohibition of the work of women and young persons at "night" will henceforth be understood to mean the six hours between 11 p.m. and 5 a.m., instead of the seven hours between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. The extension of an hour is demanded on the ground that if work must stop at 10 p.m., there will be only 17 hours of work in the day-time, which is not convenient when the plants are working in two shifts of 9 hours each. It is true that the Act (section 4) allows the extension until 11 p.m. as an exception, but there is now an attempt to make this a general practice. If this attempt were successful the Japanese standard would be further reduced by an hour below the standard of the Washington Convention.

Rest Intervals and Holidays[1]

Women employed in Japanese factories and mines are entitled by law to a rest of at least thirty minutes during working hours if these are more than 6 hours a day, and of at least an hour if the hours of work are more than 10 a day. Under the revised Factory Act of 1923 the employer must give the rest to all workers at the same time, and not by rotation as was allowed previously.

This rule has had a beneficent effect on adult male workers, because in almost all factories where women are employed beside men, men are also allowed a rest at the same time, although this is not legally obligatory. Except in a few industries, such as brewing, where the fixing of a regular rest period is rendered difficult by the nature of the work, an hour's break is the general practice in Japan. This is taken either as a single period of an hour at noon for a meal, or in three periods of half-an-hour at noon and fifteen minutes each at 9 a.m. and 3 p.m.

During the rest interval all work must stop and machinery must not be in operation. Special permission has to be obtained from the authorities if the rest cannot be given to all workers at once and if the machines must keep running, owing either to the nature of the work which requires continuous operation, limited space in the dining room, or any other reason. The factory inspection report states that during 1926 the largest number of applica-

[1] Most of the information given here is taken from *Kojo Kantoku Nenpo*, 1926, pp. 42-46.

tions for this special permission came from spinning mills, followed by filatures. There were a certain number from artificial silk factories and also from weaving mills. This shows that in the textile trades, which employ the largest proportion of women, the rest intervals are the least regular. Perhaps this is inevitable, as it is understood that most textile mills in Japan are run in difficult circumstances.

The compulsory minimum of rest periods has purposely been included by the Japanese law in the total of working hours. This, however, would make it practically impossible to encourage the grant of rest periods beyond the legal minimum. Even if the employer wished to allow a longer rest than is required by the law, he would ordinarily not do so because the prolongation of the rest period would mean the shortening of the hours of work. The revised Factory Act meets this difficulty by allowing an extension of working hours to make up for time lost by a rest of more than an hour, the maximum extension allowed being an hour. In 1926 advantage was taken of this provision in 1,226 cases. The largest number of requests for the permission were from weaving mills (876 cases). Filatures were next with 332 applications. In other factories, the cases were few ; spinning mills had 7, reeling mills 4, etc. The report adds that requests for permission to extend the rest period are made mostly in the summer when the workers need more time to recover from fatigue.

As regards holidays, Japanese law still leaves much to be desired. The Washington Hours Convention, in its Article specially applying to Japan, provides[1] that " a weekly rest period of twenty-four consecutive hours shall be allowed to all classes of workers ", but the Japanese factory and mining laws apply only to women and young persons under 16 years of age, employed in factories under the Factory Act or in mines. Moreover, these laws impose only two rest days per month, or four rest days per month in the case of women and young persons working in two or more shifts.

At present, women workers in most spinning mills and some weaving mills are working in two shifts, day and night, and therefore have four rest days per month, generally on Sundays ; women in most other mills have only two holidays, either on the first and fifteenth days of the month or on the first and third Sundays. As a result of great efforts made by the authorities, an increasing

[1] Article 5, paragraph (*e*).

number of factories are arranging that the rest days shall fall on Sundays.

As a general rule, all workers take their rest day on the same day. In electricity and gas plants and certain filatures, workers are usually obliged to take their rest days by rotation. The authorities, however, are discouraging this system through the factory inspectors, because it tends to diminish the value of the rest days in various ways.

Besides the above holidays, a period of from three days to a week is often given at the New Year and in midsummer at the time of the Buddhist festival called *Ura-bon*; this is a fairly general practice, and applies to all workers regardless of age or sex. But the custom of stopping work on national festivals is only slowly spreading. Holidays with pay are given in only a very small number of factories of progressive owners.

Wages

Factories

On the whole the earning power of Japanese women as compared with that of men is exceedingly low, being less than half in practically all industries. This fact is brought out in a striking way in the wage statistics. In an important investigation carried out on a national scale by the Government in 1924 in respect of 1,290,160 operatives of both sexes employed in factories of all different industries this was found to be true of all districts in Japan. The number of women employed in factories who were covered by the enquiry was 701,597 and their average daily earnings were 0.88 yen, while the average for 588,563 men was 2.10 yen per day. or 2.4 times as much as the women. The inequality of earning power has remained since then at about the same ratio. In March 1928, for example, the average daily earnings of male operatives had risen to 2.63 yen, but the average for women was only 0.99 yen.

If we examine the earnings of women in different industries, we find that in the printing, lithographic, and book-binding trades women were receiving the highest wages, with an average of 1.26 yen per day in 1924. In the textile trades, which employ the largest number of women (579,677 women textile workers were investigated), the average daily earnings were only 0.86 yen. Since then the level of wages has been rising considerably, though the increase has not been so rapid in some trades as in others. The following table applies only to 366,381 operatives of both sexes (including 131,126 women) in 741 factories, but it is given here in preference

to the above-mentioned statistical report of 1924 (which covered much larger numbers of workers and factories) because it is more recent and may be considered representative of current wages.[1] The figures are as reported by the governors of Hokkaido and 23 urban or rural prefectures of Japan, the most representative factories in each prefecture or district of Hokkaido having been selected for the purpose.

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES IN REPRESENTATIVE JAPANESE FACTORIES IN 1928

Branch of industry	Men		Women		General average daily wages
	Number investigated	Average daily wages	Number investigated	Average daily wages	
		Yen		Yen	Yen
Ceramic	10,155	2.34	1,786	0.94	2.13
Metal	34,040	3.09	1,603	1.26	3.01
Machine and tools	122,017	2.89	4,784	1.46	2.84
Chemical	10,591	2.31	4,758	1.09	1.94
Paper	6,452	2.02	1,722	1.03	1.81
Bones, hides, feathers	714	3.17	33	1.45	3.09
Wood and bamboo works	1,535	1.91	137	0.78	1.81
Food and drink	8,525	2.11	7,470	1.09	1.65
Clothing, boots, hats	2,439	2.02	4,430	1.12	1.45
Construction work	62	2.59	26	0.68	2.02
Printing, bookbinding	3,567	2.08	1,598	1.16	1.80
Musical instruments	1,240	2.24	158	1.08	2.11
Gas and electricity	3,800	2.55	60	1.17	2.53
Textile mills (average)	30,118	1.64	102,561	0.95	1.10
Filatures		0.96		0.68	0.70
Artificial silk		1.97		0.96	1.60
Silk and cotton reeling		1.42		0.91	1.01
Silk wadding		1.32		0.89	1.05
Cotton wadding		1.50		0.78	0.99
Silk spinning		1.72		0.93	1.15
Hemp spinning		2.12		1.17	1.52
Cotton spinning		1.63		1.12	1.24
Other spinning		2.13		0.90	1.22
Silk weaving		1.54		0.91	1.04
Wool weaving		2.09		1.09	1.35
Hemp weaving		1.33		0.94	1.09
Cotton weaving		1.35		0.92	1.03
Hosiery		1.80		1.16	1.33
Plaited goods		1.23		0.86	0.90
Ropes and nets		1.75		0.72	1.06
Hemp threads		1.43		0.86	1.24
Dyeing, printing		2.10		0.89	1.88
Bleaching, washing		1.85		1.24	1.47
General average (all industries) or total	235,255	2.63	131,126	0.99	2.05

[1] Cf. STATISTICAL BUREAU OF THE CABINET: *Chingin Bukka Tokei Geppo*, June 1928, pp. 3-9.

Mines

The national investigation of labour conducted in 1924, which covered both factories and mines, showed that the average daily earnings of men and women mining workers were 1.58 yen (as against 1.44 yen of factory workers). The average for women was 1.30 yen and for men 1.67 yen a day. Thus the difference between the wages of men and women was smaller in mines than in factories.

The following table[1] shows the wages of men and women employed in 79 of the most representative Japanese mines in March 1928. The figures may also be considered representative of current wages. The table shows incidentally that miners' wages are now below those of factory workers.

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES IN REPRESENTATIVE JAPANESE MINES IN 1928

Kind of mines	Men		Women		General average daily wages
	Number investigated	Average daily wages	Number investigated	Average daily wages	
		Yen		Yen	Yen
Metal	21,286	1.93	2,191	0.72	1.81
Coal	82,494	1.90	17,867	1.35	1.80
Oil	2,854	1.77	170	0.80	1.72
Others	1,041	2.17	116	0.82	2.03
Average	107,675	1.91	20,344	1.27	1.81

Roughly speaking the wages of factory and mining workers were at about the same level in 1926. If we take the average wages in 1926 as base (= 100), we find that miners' wages have risen to about 105 or sometimes 108, but that factory workers' wages have risen much more, sometimes to 115 or 116, and have been steadily higher than miners' wages.[2]

Problems relating to the Payment of Wages

In examining the wage figures, it is important to know whether they represent the total earnings or are cash wages.

[1] *Chingin Bukka Tokei Geppo*, June 1928, pp. 4, 17, 18.

[2] Cf. Monthly reports of the Chambers of Commerce and Industry of Tokyo and Osaka.

Very often the figures given for the wages of women employed in Japanese factories and mines include the value of board and dormitory accommodation, and thus do not represent the actual amount of cash received. Bonuses or other allowances are sometimes included. It is said that most companies charge the worker about 15 sen a day (which is less than the actual cost) for board and dormitory accommodation and do not deduct this amount in stating the wages earned. The wage figures given in the foregoing tables include bonuses and possibly such other items as are mentioned above.

The practice of deducting the value of board and dormitory accommodation from the nominal wage may be allowed by the prefectural governor under a provision that a part of the workers' wages may be replaced by "some other grant for their benefit".[1] According to the factory inspection report, permits to this effect were given in five prefectures in 1926; the total number of cases in Tokyo was 772. In certain cases, rice and other foodstuffs are given in place of part of the wages, always at lower prices than market prices.

A flagrant evil in connection with the payment of wages is the practice of lending relatively large sums of money to the parents of young women workers before the latter commence their work. The loan is often an inducement for parents in need of money to send their daughter to the factory, and the employer, faced with increasing difficulty in recruiting new hands for his growing factory, is glad to lend the money. Even though the girl is not legally bound to remain in the employment of the factory, she is placed under a virtual obligation to stay till the debt is repaid. This has brought about a condition somewhat analogous to indentured labour[2], which has serious aspects in the dormitories attached to textile mills where very large numbers of young women workers are lodged.

Deduction from wages by the employer is also made to a wide extent with a view to constituting a savings fund for the worker. This practice is allowed by the law on the ground that it is for the worker's benefit. The total sum saved up in this way in 1926 amounted to almost 50,800,000 yen (the savings of 770,640 men and women workers, representing an average of about 66 yen per

[1] Section 24 (*i*) of the Ordinance of 5 June 1926 for the administration of the Factory Act. *Legislative Series*, 1926, Jap. 1 (B).

[2] Cf. Seishi KIMURA: *Rodosha Boshu Torishimari Kisoku Shakugi* (Explanation of the Regulations for the Control of the Recruitment of Workers). Tokyo, 1926.

head), or a considerable increase over the preceding year's total of just over 46,400,000 yen. Over half of this amount represents the savings of women in filatures and spinning mills. Parts of it are kept in postal savings and other banks, but nearly 83 per cent. is retained in the factories and is usually turned into "floating capital" by the factory management. This entails a grave danger because of business depression and failures of factories. The factory inspection authorities are reported to be paying serious attention to this danger, and permission to keep the workers' savings in the factory is usually granted only after a careful investigation into the employer's financial situation.

On the question of deductions from wages, some remarks may be quoted from the last factory inspection report[1]:

> The payment of wages differs from the ordinary methods owing to the fact that young women operatives are lodged in dormitories. In the early stage, their wages are held back to repay the money borrowed either before or after they are employed. When the debt is cleared, their wages are mostly saved up for them in the custody of the employers, the girls receiving only small amounts as pocket money. When needed, parts of the savings may be sent to the parents at home. Otherwise the girls take back the whole of their savings when they return home upon completing their term. In these cases the provisions of the Factory Act apply only to the extent of enforcing the keeping of monthly accounts showing clearly how much has been paid out and how much saved up for each worker. This is an inevitable situation arising out of the dormitory system and evils can accompany this practice. The inspectors in each locality are therefore doing their utmost in order to remove abuses and to improve the situation.

The only other legal provision relating to the payment of wages is the requirement[2] that wages must be paid "in Japanese currency" and "at least once a month". In Tokyo, Osaka, and a few other prefectures wages are often paid every week, but the general practice throughout the country is to pay either once or twice a month.

(To be continued.)

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[1] *Kojo Kantoku Nenpo*, 1926, p. 33.

[2] Section 22 of the Ordinance of 5 June 1926 for the administration of the Factory Act.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

Clauses restricting Freedom of Employment ("Radius Clauses") in the Employment Contracts of Technical Workers and Salaried Employees in Industry and Commerce: I

In response to a request made by the organisations of salaried employees and by the Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers, the International Labour Office has undertaken a documentary study of the "radius clause" in the contract of employment of technical workers and salaried employees in industry and commerce. This question was placed on the agenda of the first meeting of the Committee, which was held at Geneva on 19-20 October 1928. The Committee took note of the report presented by the Office and adopted the following resolution:

The Committee is of the opinion that, in order to be valid, any clause of a contract of employment prohibiting a salaried employee, after the expiry of the contract, from carrying on another business by himself, or from joining with others for the purpose of carrying on another business, or from entering the service of other employers, should be restricted to safeguarding the legitimate interests of the employer against the prejudice that would be caused him by the disclosure of manufacturing processes and by competition making use of the special knowledge acquired in his service.

The Committee requests the International Labour Office to get into touch with the interests concerned in order to ascertain their views on the principles enumerated above.

The Committee decides to request the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to consider, on a suitable occasion, the question of clauses restricting freedom of re-employment, with a view to finding the most satisfactory solution.

The first part of this preliminary report submitted to the Committee by the Office is given below; it will be completed in the next number of the *Review*.

* * *

The contract of employment of salaried employees and technical workers has for the last ten years been made the subject of special

legislative provision in a certain number of countries. In Austria, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Denmark, Finland, Hungary, Italy, Luxemburg, Peru, and Poland Acts or Decrees have in fact been passed to regulate the legal status of salaried employees more definitely than had been the case previously. In other countries, for example in France, various Bills and proposals have been put forward for the same purpose. This desire to set up special protective measures for salaried employees and technical workers can be explained by the situation in which such persons are generally placed with regard to the possibilities of employment. In this domain, the legislations of certain countries contain provisions relating to the " radius " clauses which are often inserted in contracts of employment. The object of these clauses is to restrict the occupational activity of the employed person after the expiry of his contract of employment by prohibiting him, for instance, from entering into a contract of employment with any firm in the same line as the one he has just left, or to start a similar undertaking on his own account, either alone or as a partner. There may be similar clauses not only in contracts of employment, but also in contracts of association and of sale.

Even when there are no special provisions on this subject the necessity for protecting the employer against the revelation and use of trade secrets lends a certain justification to the radius clause. At the present moment, however, this justification is being very seriously discussed. It is pointed out in particular that this question falls under penal law and that the employer is already protected by the Acts on industrial and commercial patents, disloyal competition, etc. It is added, moreover, that, except in certain backward industries or certain new industries, there are no longer any trade secrets, because there is no marked difference between the methods employed by various firms for manufacturing the same products or objects. As far as general knowledge is concerned, which the employed person may have acquired during his engagement, it is counterbalanced by the fact that the employer has profited by the experience of the employee, who may have introduced improvements or sometimes even actual inventions, and who in any case has played his part in the development of the business. When he leaves his employment, therefore, he ought to keep complete freedom of action, especially if, as is usually the case, no compensation has been provided for in exchange for the restrictions imposed upon him. In commerce the situation is very similar. It may be said that the customers should not be considered the exclusive property of the employer, but that the salesman or representative who has built up or developed a clientele by his personal efforts should also have a certain claim upon it. It would appear that these are the principles on which legislation and legal practice at the present day base their interpretations, which tend to become more and more favourable to the employees.

This argument would not perhaps be sufficient to justify the position taken up by the organisations concerned, who demand that every clause prohibiting an employed person from accepting a situation in an undertaking similar to that which he is leaving within a given period after the expiry of his contract should be considered null and void. In support of this demand the organisations also point out that the right of the

employer to impose restrictions on the use which the employed person makes of his power to work is incompatible with the principles of the protection and freedom of labour. The concentration of undertakings, which has made great progress since the war, and which has very often brought different undertakings into the hands of a single employer, may make it impossible for the employed person to find work. As a result radius clauses tend to increase unemployment. Further, the abuses to which they have given rise, especially from the point of view of the period and area to which they apply, have aroused strong opposition among the parties affected. All this explains the position which has been taken up almost simultaneously by the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers and by the large international organisations of salaried employees and technical workers, which have asked the International Labour Office to undertake a documentary enquiry into the application of radius clauses in different countries.

The research undertaken by the Office in response to these requests has dealt in particular with the clauses which occur in contracts of employment between employers and employees. Almost all the considerations which might be suggested by an examination of the *de jure* and *de facto* situations in various countries might be applied to most radius clauses, quite apart from the nature of the contracts in which they occur.

Legislative or contractual provisions sometimes aim at regulating the right to prohibit competition not only after the expiry of the contract of employment, but even while it is in force. This study deals merely with prohibition which applies after the expiry of the contract. When special provisions have been made for prohibiting an employee from competing with his employer while the contract is still in force, they merely define or supplement general protective measures deriving from general law. These measures appear so amply justified that they raise no opposition. In any case the legislations which have special provisions on this subject are not numerous, and this aspect of the problem does not really enter into the scope of this study, which originated in the abuses which frequently occur in the enforcement or interpretation of restrictions imposed on the employee after the expiry of his contract.

In limiting this work to technical workers and salaried employees no arbitrary discrimination has been made. These limits are in fact entirely the result of the existing situation ; there is no reason why these restrictive measures which are admitted for technical workers and salaried employees should not be applied equally to other classes of workers. For example, a worker who is employed in an engineering workshop could compete with his former employer if he set up on his own account in the neighbourhood ; similarly, an articled clerk on leaving the solicitor's office where he has been working becomes a competitor of his former employer if he remains in the same town. In practice, however, if radius clauses exist for industrial workers or for persons engaged in the liberal professions they are only very rare exceptions. It is doubtless on this account that in most countries legislative provisions on this subject deal solely with technical workers and salaried employees in industry and commerce.

From the information collected by the Office a survey has been prepared of the existing legislation and the clauses generally inserted in contracts, taking account only of the essential elements which may be of importance in a comparative study. This survey must be considered as purely provisional; it is hoped to complete it by further enquiry. The information so far collected refers to 18 countries; this has been classified so as to show the different aspects under which the questions connected with radius clauses may be examined, from both the moral and the legal points of view.

Nature of the Systems of Regulation

There are numerous countries which have regulated the radius clause by legislative means. This legal system of regulation is sometimes very definite and very detailed (Austria, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Poland, Switzerland). In the majority of cases it merely lays down certain general principles to which the courts may refer in case of dispute (Belgium, Denmark, Italy, Luxemburg, the Netherlands).

In certain countries (Brazil, Bulgaria, France, Great Britain, Hungary, Japan) the radius clause is exclusively a matter of contract. In case of dispute it is governed by general law.

In *Austria* the Salaried Employees Act of 11 May 1921, sections 36-38, contains provisions regarding the radius clause. In general there is no clause of this type in collective labour agreements, but it is found in individual contracts for certain classes of employees.

In *Belgium* the Act of 7 August 1922 on contracts of employment prohibits radius clauses for technical workers and salaried employees earning less than 12,000 francs per year. Nevertheless, such clauses appear in numerous contracts for engineers, commercial employees, and commercial travellers.

In *Brazil* there are no special legal provisions concerning the radius clause.

It is not customary for such clauses to be included in contracts of employment. They are found in contracts entered into by foreign undertakings which have brought employees or experts from their own countries and who have conformed to the customs of these countries.

In *Bulgaria* there are no legal provisions, and radius clauses in contracts of employment are very rare.

In *Czechoslovakia* the radius clause is regulated by the Act of 16 January 1910 concerning the contract of employment for commercial employees (a former Austrian Act), sections 36-38.

In virtue of these provisions radius clauses are seldom included in contracts of employment. These clauses must not in fact be less favourable than the Act. In collective agreements there are no such clauses.

In *Denmark* section 38 of the Act of 8 May 1917 regulates the radius clause. It is very rare for written contracts to be concluded with ordinary salaried employees and for such persons there is usually no radius clause. Such a clause is, however, always inserted in contracts with managers, heads of branches, and other persons in positions of management, and particularly commercial travellers and representatives.

In *France* there are no legislative provisions concerning the radius clause. The use of such a clause is not general, but it tends to appear more and more frequently in individual contracts of employment proposed or imposed by employers.

In *Germany* the law does not prohibit competition after the expiry of a contract of employment, but there are agreements regulating the matter. The legal force of such agreements is subject to certain restrictions with reference to salaried employees in commerce and to technical employees :

(*a*) for commercial employees these restrictions are contained in section 74 and the following sections of the Commercial Code as amended by the Act of 10 June 1914 ;

(*b*) for technical employees the restrictions are regulated by section 133 *f* of the Industrial Code.

It is customary to insert radius clauses in contracts of employment. In general these take the following form :

If you should work in another firm after the expiry of your contract, you promise to inform us of the fact in advance. We reserve the right to grant you permission or not to enter the service of the firm in question. If we refuse permission, we shall pay you compensation of . . . for the period of . . . .

The most important method of regulating the radius clause is found in the collective agreement for higher employees in the German chemical industry, concluded between the Association of Employers in the Chemical Industry on the one hand and the Federation of Wage-Earning Chemists and Engineers and the Federation of Diplomaed Employees in Technical Occupations on the other hand. This agreement is valid for the whole of the Reich ; it has been declared compulsory for the whole chemical industry. The provisions of the radius clause included in this agreement conform to the prescriptions of the Commercial Code, even though they refer to technical employees, except for certain special provisions which are in favour of the employee.

Out of 808 collective agreements concluded in 1927, there are 210 which prohibit the radius clause and 36 which sanction it for higher employees. As regards other collective agreements, the legal provisions of the Commercial Code and the Industrial Code hold.

In *Great Britain* the radius clause is not subject to any special legislation, but is governed by the common law of contract. A person may

be restrained from carrying on his trade by reason of an agreement voluntarily entered into by him, and in such a case the general principle that an individual is entitled to exercise his occupation when and where he will must be applied with due regard to the following principles :

(*a*) public policy requires for men of full age and understanding the utmost freedom to contract ;

(*b*) it is public policy to afford an employer an unrestricted choice of assistants and the opportunity to instruct them in his trade and its secrets without fear of their being his competitors.

In *Hungary* there are no legal provisions regulating the radius clause. Such clauses do not often occur in contracts of employment, but are sometimes met with in contracts in large-scale industry, particularly in chemical factories and the textile industry.

In *Italy* this matter is regulated by section 8 of the Legislative Decree of 13 November 1924, which states that the employer may not, except within certain limits, enter into any special agreement to restrict in the future the occupational activity of an employee who has left his service.

It is not usual for collective agreements to include a clause prohibiting competition after the agreement has come to an end. Certain collective agreements refer to the provisions of section 8 of the Legislative Decree mentioned above.

In *Japan* there are no legislative provisions regarding the radius clause.

In *Luxemburg* the radius clause is regulated by the Act of 31 October 1919 concerning the engagement of confidential employees.

In general there is no radius clause in contracts of employment. Contracts with bank employees include a provision under which they pledge themselves not to work in any similar undertaking in the country during a period of one year after the expiry of their contract.

In the *Netherlands* the radius clause is regulated by section 1637 X of the Civil Code.

Radius clauses are met with in contracts of employment even when these contracts have been concluded with persons whose work is very simple and whose duties are very humble.

In *Poland* the situation is as follows :

In Polish Upper Silesia the legislative provisions regarding the radius clause are the same as in Germany (section 74 and following sections of the Commercial Code and section 133 *f* of the Industrial Code).

The Polish Government promulgated in a Decree of 16 March 1928 an Act concerning the contract of employment for non-manual workers (salaried employees), which came into force for the whole of Poland except the Voivodia of Silesia on 23 July 1928.

In Silesia the Act will come into force four months after it has been

accepted by the Silesian Sejm ; this has not yet taken place. In this Polish Act section 9 provides for the prohibition of competition.

Radius clauses are generally included in the contracts of technical employees who apply any method of manufacture which is still new and not generally known.

In *Spain* there are no legislative provisions regarding the radius clause.

In *Switzerland* the legal provisions regarding the radius clause are contained in sections 319-362 of the Code of Obligations. This system of legal regulation is largely based on the German Commercial Code and the former Austrian Act of 1910 concerning contracts of employment.

The radius clause is less frequent than it formerly was in contracts of employment. The conclusion of individual contracts is comparatively rare. Since the prohibition of competition is not valid unless stipulated in writing, it is limited to those cases where conditions of employment have been laid down in writing. On the other hand, the radius clause is much more frequent in the printed contracts of engagement used by large firms. In such cases, in fact, this clause appears automatically, even when the nature of the work and of the engagement do not at all require it. The law courts are not inclined to enforce such clauses.

In the *United States* the State of Michigan has promulgated an Anti-Trust Act in which it is expressly stipulated that a radius agreement between merchants who sell their undertakings does not come under the provisions of the Act. In the same State legal proceedings were instituted against an employee who had undertaken by agreement not to solicit orders nor to deliver tea or any other goods in the city of Detroit or in any other district in which he had worked under his contract of employment for a period of one year after the expiry of his contract, and who had not kept this undertaking. The court, however, refused to give a decision, stating that the contract in question was governed by the 1905 Trust Act, that it was contrary to the public interest and consequently illegal and invalid. This decision seems to have had the force of law in the State of Michigan until 1917, when the Act of 1905 was amended by adding to the existing exception concerning the buying and selling of businesses a further exception recognising the radius agreement as legal in cases where route lists are provided by the employer for his employee. Although a radius clause acts in restraint of trade, it is generally recognised by the courts as legal. Such a clause is found in numerous contracts. It would not be possible to find how widespread its use is, and what proportion of employers use it in their contracts, unless by finding out the number and type of disputes on this subject brought before the courts.

Conditions of Validity

The majority of the systems of legislation regulating the radius clause stipulate a certain number of conditions necessary to make these clauses

valid. If such legislative provisions do not exist, the decisions of the law courts also make the validity of a radius agreement subject to certain conditions. The guiding principle is that the restraint of competition must not be of such a nature as to endanger the future of the employee to an unjust extent. The general conditions required for the validity of this agreement refer to the object of the restriction, that is to say, the type of work, the period of time, the area affected, the wages or salary, the compensation to be paid, and the age of the employee. The most complete system of regulations on this subject is to be found in Germany.

In *Austria* every agreement restricting the occupational activity of the employee after the expiry of a contract is void if the employee was a minor at the time when the contract was made or if his remuneration does not exceed 120,000 kronen per year at the date of expiry of the contract.

If the remuneration exceeds this figure the agreement is valid only under the following conditions :

(*a*) if the restrictions do not refer to any activity outside that branch of business in which the employer is engaged, and do not cover a period exceeding one year ;

(*b*) if the conditions of such restrictions, with reference to their object, area, and duration of their validity, do not, taking into account the interests which they have for the employer, put any unjust obstacle in the way of the employee in his future career.

The agreement is not valid if concluded with a minor.

The wages of the employee must be at least 12 schillings per day before the clause is valid. For this reason the clause is limited in practice to technical employees.

In *Belgium* all clauses forbidding an employee after the expiry of his contract to enter an undertaking or to become a partner for the development of any trade or to enter into the employment of other employers, are void.

This provision is laid down in section 20, subsection 1, of the Act of 7 August 1922. As this Act applies only to employees earning less than 12,000 francs per year, the above provision concerning the non-validity of radius agreements applies only to employees whose remuneration is less than 12,000 francs.

In *Czechoslovakia* the radius agreement is void if the employee was a minor at the date when the contract was concluded or if his remuneration does not exceed 4,000 crowns when the contract expires. When the remuneration of the employee exceeds 4,000 crowns the radius agreement takes effect only if the following conditions are complied with :

(*a*) if the limitation of occupational activity extends only to that line of business in which the former employer was engaged and does not exceed a period of one year ;

(*b*) if the limitation, as regards its object, its duration, the area to which it extends, and the commercial interests of the employer, does not unjustly endanger the occupational career of the employee.

In *Denmark* if an employee has undertaken not to carry on any undertaking or to accept a position in any undertaking, this agreement cannot be enforced if it exceeds, as regards time, area, and object, the limits necessary to ensure the protection of the employer against competition, or if it restricts the possibility of the employee's earning his living. In the latter case the interest of the employer in maintaining the radius agreement must be taken into account.

In case of dispute either party may institute proceedings before the Maritime and Commercial Court in Copenhagen. It is much to the interest of the employee that disputes should be laid before this Court, because it is composed partly of persons with a knowledge of trade and of employees, and because it is always possible to demand that one of these employees should take part in giving a decision on any disputes between employers and employed.

In *France* in default of any special legislation the interpretation of clauses of a contract of employment restricting the liberty of further employment is regulated according to general law. It is left to the law courts to decide to what extent a radius agreement may be considered valid. Judicial practice is unanimous in holding that agreements for a general and complete prohibition of competition are void; in other words, no employee may legally undertake, in an agreement with his employer, not to carry on that occupation or not to perform any particular work for the whole of his life or for an indefinite period. On the other hand, an agreement is valid if it stipulates that an employee shall not within a definite period perform a certain work in a definite locality or district. A radius clause has also been recognised as legal by certain courts when the restriction, although indefinite as regards time, was limited as regards place, or *vice versa*. Generally speaking the radius clause is recognised as valid only if the restrictions which it imposes are necessary to protect the employer from disloyal competition.

In *Germany* the provisions regarding commercial employees are as follows:

An agreement between an employer and an employee in trade limiting the occupational activity of the latter after the expiry of his contract of employment is valid only if it has been drawn up in writing and if the employer has given the employee a document signed by his hand and containing the said agreement.

The prohibition of competition is valid only if the employer undertakes to pay the employee, during the period of such prohibition, compensation amounting for every year during which the prohibition continues to at least half the wages that the employee was earning at the date of expiry of his contract.

Competition cannot be legally prohibited except for the purpose of safeguarding the legitimate occupational interests of the employer. Such prohibition is without effect if, taking into account the compensation granted in view of the area, duration, and type of work concerned, it is of such a nature that it unjustly endangers the future career of the

employee. The prohibition cannot apply over a period of more than two years from the date on which the contract of employment expired.

The prohibition of competition remains without effect if the annual salary to which the employee was entitled by virtue of his contract does not exceed 1,500 Reichsmarks multiplied by the cost-of-living index number; i.e. at the present time 2,250 Reichsmarks. It is also void if the employee was a minor at the date of the conclusion of the contract or if the employer has obtained from the employee a solemn undertaking or similar promise to observe this clause. Any agreement is void by which a third party undertakes in the place of the employee that the latter shall restrict his occupational activity after the expiry of his contract of employment. The provisions of the Civil Code concerning the nullity of legal acts contrary to good morals are in no way modified.

A radius clause without a promise to pay compensation is valid if the salary of the employee exceeds 8,000 Reichsmarks multiplied by the cost-of-living index number; i.e. at the present time 12,000 Reichsmarks.

For industrial employees the regulations are as follows :

An agreement for the restraint of the occupational activity of the employee after the expiry of his contract of employment is valid only if the restrictions of time, area, and object do not place too great obstacles in the way of the employee in his future career.

The agreement is void if the employee was a minor at the date when it was concluded.

In *Great Britain* in earlier times it would probably have been held that all contracts in restraint of trade, whether general or partial, were void. It then became the rule that a partial restraint might be good if reasonable, but a general restraint was of necessity void. A restraint was considered general if it did not apply to a given time or to a given place.

At present the rule observed is as follows : whether a restraint is general or partial, its validity is to be determined by the consideration whether it exceeds what is reasonably necessary for the protection of the covenantee.

In *Hungary* the law courts decide in each case whether a radius clause is valid or not. It has been decided that an agreement in terms of which an employee, after the expiry of his contract of employment, undertakes not to carry on any operations of the same type as those of his previous employer, is valid and that a penalty fixed in the contract may be demanded without its being necessary to prove that any injury has been caused.

It is not considered contrary to good morals to fix in the contract a penalty to prevent an employee from entering into competition with his former employer in a given town, on condition that the future career of the employee is not made too hazardous on this account.

In *Italy* the law recognises the necessity for the employee not to make any improper use of information regarding the business of his employer in the form of disloyal competition, whether during or after his contract of employment, and adds that the employer for his part cannot, after the contract has been broken, restrict by means of any special agreements the occupational activity of the employee beyond the above limits. Consequently, any agreement by which an employee undertakes, after the expiry of his contract, not to enter the service of any competing firm within a certain period is void.

In *Luxemburg* radius agreements are illegal and forbidden when the employee, at the moment of concluding the contract, is a minor, or when his salary does not exceed 4,000 francs at the termination of his engagement. When the salary is higher, such an agreement will take effect only:

(*a*) if the restriction of the activity of the employee refers to the line of business of the employer and does not exceed a period of two years;

(*b*) if the limitation in question, in consideration of its object, time, and place and in proportion to the commercial interest of the employer, does not make it too difficult for the employee to earn a livelihood.

In the *Netherlands* a radius clause is valid only if it is drawn up in a written agreement with an employee who is of age. The courts may declare the whole or part of such a clause to be void if it is prejudicial to the employee to a degree which is out of all proportion to the necessity for safeguarding the interests of the employer.

In *Poland* a radius agreement is valid only if concluded with an employee who is of age. It must also be drawn up in writing, and the employer must undertake to pay the employee for the whole period of restriction at least half the average wages which the employee was receiving for the previous three years, or, if he has not been employed for so long, during the whole period of his employment.

Such a clause applies to the line of business in which the employee has worked. The restriction may last for one year at most.

In *Switzerland* the restraint of competition is legal only if the employee could, by taking advantage of his knowledge of the clientele and the secrets of his employer, cause appreciable injury to the latter. A radius agreement is void if the employee was a minor at the moment when the contract was concluded.

The restraint of competition is valid only in so far as it is stipulated for one line of business for a definite period of time and a definite area, and when it is not likely to endanger unjustly the future career of the employee.

The restraint of competition is valid only if stipulated in writiny.

In the *United States* the conditions of validity are determined by the courts, which decide whether the prohibition provided for is necessary or not for safeguarding the business or the clientele of the employer, and whether it involves for the employee a greater restraint than is

necessary for the protection of the undertaking or the employer. When examining these facts the courts will determine whether society as a whole would be injured by losing the services and abilities of the employee and by the possibility of the latter's becoming a public charge. When the public interest is not involved the courts generally admit radius agreements provided they are drawn up justly.

When a radius agreement obviously seeks to set up a penal clause to the detriment of the employee rather than to protect the employer, when it aims at reducing the earning capacity of the employee rather than at providing reasonable protection for the interests of the employer, its application can hardly be supported by the courts, and it is very probable that such a contract would be declared void.

Scope of Application

Generally speaking, the use of radius agreements is not limited to certain classes of undertakings nor to certain classes of employees. In countries where the question is regulated by provisions in Acts concerning contracts of employment (Austria, Italy, Luxemburg) the Act itself fixes the classes of workers who must be considered as coming under the term "salaried employees" for the application of the radius clause.

Elsewhere in the majority of cases no limits are set. The scope of radius agreements must then be considered in the widest sense both from the point of view of the undertakings and of the classes of workers affected, but in practice the use of the radius agreement is nearly always limited to the same occupations (technical workers in industry, commercial employees, agents, travellers, and representatives).

In *Austria* provisions regarding the radius agreement are valid for all employees who are subject to the Act of 11 May 1921 concerning the contract of employment. This Act applies to persons employed in commercial undertakings for purely commercial work, for more important duties, and for office work. It also applies particularly to the staff of undertakings of any kind covered by the Labour Code; to credit, welfare, and insurance institutions, publishing offices, offices of lawyers and engineers, and to engineers, architects, and doctors and dentists in private clinics.

In *Belgium* radius agreements, which are valid only for employees with a salary exceeding 12,000 francs, apply to persons considered as salaried employees according to the definition given in the Trades Councils Act of 9 July 1926, section 4.

In *Czechoslovakia* radius agreements apply to persons who are employed chiefly in commercial undertakings on commercial work or higher non-commercial duties, persons occupied in undertakings subject to the provisions of the Industrial Code, in credit, insurance, and publishing undertakings, in the offices of lawyers, engineers, architects, business agents, etc.

In *Denmark* the provisions of the Act of 8 May 1917 regarding radius agreements are valid for all shops or undertakings and for all salaried employees occupied in them.

In *France* radius agreements apply chiefly to commercial representatives, agents of selling houses, or generally to salaried employees whose duties have a certain importance or who might be in a position to learn certain trade secrets, and to technical workers in industry and commerce. The use of the radius clause in contracts is usually limited to these classes. There is, however, a certain tendency to extend this clause to other classes, particularly bank employees in provincial districts.

In *Great Britain* radius agreements do not apply to any special category, but there have been disputes over the exercise of many occupations, particularly for commercial agents, commercial travellers, bank managers and clerks, merchants, architects, doctors, dentists, opticians, and manufacturers.

In *Italy* section 8 of the Legislative Decree of 13 November 1923, which prohibits an employee from undertaking disloyal competition with his former employer by making use of knowledge acquired during his period of work in the undertaking, applies to all classes of workers who, in view of their duties, can be considered as salaried employees in the terms of section 1 of the Act mentioned (technical and administrative employees in industry and commerce and in all other occupations in general).

In *Luxemburg* provisions regarding the radius agreement are valid for all workers who come under the heading "salaried employees" as defined by the Act of 31 October 1919, section 3, that is to say, all persons, without distinction of sex or age, who under a permanent engagement or continuously carry out for some other person (but not for the State, municipalities, or other public or public utility undertakings), and for remuneration in cash or in some equivalent form, work which is either exclusively or chiefly non-manual.

In the *Netherlands* it is found that radius agreements are insisted upon by banks, import and export offices, and industrial undertakings. They also apply to persons engaged in scientific work or in management, or persons who have knowledge of trade secrets.

In *Poland* the legal provisions regarding radius agreements apply to commercial employees, engineers, technical workers, and foremen.

In *Spain* radius agreements apply especially to salaried employees of the higher categories, and in particular to technical managers in industries where there are trade secrets, and to sales agents of foreign firms which have businesses in Spain.

In *Switzerland* the provisions regarding radius agreements apply to all classes of workers, but in practice they do not apply to domestic

servants. They cover contracts relating to work which presupposes special scientific or artistic training and is remunerated by means of fees when these agreements show the necessary elements for being considered as contracts of employment. In commerce, the existence of conditions that justify a radius agreement is generally contested. There is, however, a tendency to admit that commercial travellers who represent a firm to a large number of clients should be subject to a radius agreement. It is not usual to insert such a clause in the contracts of bank employees. This clause does not appear to be very frequently used in the machine industries.

In the *United States* examination of the cases submitted to the courts in which a radius agreement was recognised as valid shows that these agreements apply particularly to commercial travellers and itinerant salesmen. The greatest number of cases of this type would seem to refer to town travellers whose sphere of action is restricted to one town or to one district.

Before the war radius clauses were found in all contracts with doctors and dentists. While such specialists were serving a period of probation with older colleagues they undertook not to compete with their employer during a certain period and within a certain radius. These contracts have become less frequent as a result of changes in American life. At present dentists and doctors have sufficient openings not to require to enter the service of older colleagues in order to work up a connection.

(*To be continued.*)

Standard of Living and Conditions of Employment of Rangoon Workers

There is a great lack of reliable information on standards of living and conditions of labour in a number of Asiatic countries. All the more welcome, therefore, is the report recently issued by the Burma Labour Statistics Bureau which gives the results of a survey of the working-class standard of living, cost of living, and conditions of employment in Rangoon.[1] Detailed information of great interest and value was obtained by systematic enquiries conducted under difficult conditions. In planning the results, the Resolutions of the Third International Conference of Labour Statisticians were taken into consideration, and, so far as practicable, applied.

Standard of Living

The standard of living data cover skilled and unskilled factory workers, industrial and transport workers employed outside factories,

[1] Burma Labour Statistics Bureau : *Report of an Enquiry into the Standard and Cost of Living of the Working Classes in Rangoon.* By J. J. Bennison, B.A., I.C.S. Rangoon, Superintendent, Govt. Printing and Stationery, 1928. v + 221 pp. Rs. 3; 4s. 6d.

including casual workers, and independent artisans. The races included are Burmese and the chief races of Indians in Rangoon. Budgets were obtained from a proportion of workers in each class of occupation and race, with a view to securing a representative sample for the working class as a whole. Altogether 3,317 budgets were obtained from Indians and 992 from Burmese. As the majority of married Indian workers in Burma leave their wives and children in India, the Indian budgets are mostly single budgets ; from the Burmese workers only family budgets were collected. To avoid complication, families without boarders or lodgers were selected ; as, however, the number of families containing them is small, it is considered that this restriction would not affect materially the representativeness of the sample. The collection of the budgets was spread over the years 1926 and 1927.

In consequence of the inability of the workers or members of their families to keep systematic records of income and expenditure, estimates were supplied by the workers and entered by investigators on the enquiry forms. The investigators, who had undergone a preliminary period of training, visited the houses of the workers one or more times during the month of the enquiry.

Burmese Families

The results show that the Burmese families consisted of an average of 3.71 persons representing 3.01 units (adult males) according to the Lusk scale. It is considered that these figures are somewhat lower than the average in the district covered by the enquiry. More than half the families had only one wage earner, more than one third had two, while less than 10 per cent. had three or more. The average income for all families was 58 rupees 8 annas 3 pies for the month, of which nearly 90 per cent. was provided by males 14 years of age and over.

The average expenditure on food was 52.8 per cent. of total expenditure, clothing 10.6 per cent., house rent 13.9 per cent., fuel and lighting 5.2 per cent., household requisites 2.6 per cent., and miscellaneous 15.0 per cent. For the various food items nutritive values are calculated. Of the average number of gross calories consumed per day, rice contributed 71.2 per cent. and sesamum oil 10.4 per cent.

For clothing, in addition to the information usually compiled in family budget enquiries, a suggestion made at the Third International Conference of Labour Statisticians was adopted. This was to compile separate information as to the expenditure of persons of different age and sex, so that a relative scale could be constructed for any group of items. The scale for clothing, according to information available for Burmese families, is as follows :

Age group	Relative expenditure on clothing for Males	Females
Parents	100	74
Children :		
14 and over	79	88
10 and under 14	44	45
6 and under 10	31	29
2 and under 6	20	16
Under 2	13	11

Payments for housing accommodation by Burmese working-class families in Rangoon vary considerably. Some families live in very inferior quarters and pay less than a rupee per month, while others pay twenty rupees or more. " In order to reduce expenses Burmese families often join together and share a room. But though overcrowding exists to a certain extent among Burmese families, it is not to be compared with the overcrowding which exists in the registered lodging-houses occupied by the Indian labourers. About 9 per cent. of the families live in their own houses, about 15 per cent. in free quarters provided by employers, and the remaining 76 per cent. in rented houses. "

Expenditure on fuel and lighting is mainly on firewood and kerosene oil. Household requisites are few. They consist mainly of thin mats, cotton blankets, pillows, cooking pots, and a small number of items of furniture. The chief item of miscellaneous expenditure is tobacco; there is no expenditure on liquor, while expenditure on education was found in only about 12 per cent. of the families.

Indian Single Budgets.

The earning capacity and habits of expenditure of single Indian workmen in Rangoon differ according to race. The expenditure of Hindustanis and Chittagonians especially differs considerably from that of Tamils, Telugus, and Uriyas. The chief data as to the income and expenditure of each of these races are given in the following table :

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF SINGLE INDIAN WORKMEN IN RANGOON

Race	Average monthly income	Average monthly expenditure	Percentage expenditure on :					
			Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel and lighting	Household requisites	Miscellaneous
	R. A. P.	R. A. P.						
Tamils	27 7 8	17 12 3	54.0	5.9	7.4	5.0	2.3	25.4
Telugus	28 14 10	19 11 10	53.6	6.2	7.4	4.7	2.0	26.1
Uriyas	35 0 3	20 2 8	51.2	6.7	7.9	4.8	2.1	27.3
Hindustanis	26 0 1	14 13 5	61.0	9.4	10.2	5.9	2.6	10.9
Chittagonians	29 5 3	17 5 1	60.0	9.7	7.5	4.6	2.2	16.0

In using the income figures for comparative purposes it should be remembered that Indian workmen in Burma are mainly unskilled. The amount saved represents from about 30 per cent. to over 40 per cent. of the income according to race. About three-quarters of the savings are remitted to India.

Interesting information is given as to the food consumption of the different races. The number of gross calories consumed and the percentages represented by the chief food items are given in the following table :

FOOD CONSUMPTION (IN CALORIES) OF INDIAN WORKMEN IN RANGOON

Race	Total gross calories consumed per day	Percentage of total calories represented by :				
		Rice	Wheat flour	Pulses	Vegetable oils	Fruit and vegetables
Tamils	3,051	74.2	2.6	6.8	5.3	5.2
Telugus	3,215	72.3	4.6	6.2	5.4	5.2
Uriyas	3,298	74.7	2.5	6.3	5.1	4.6
Hindustanis	3,184	45.5	28.3	14.1	2.5	2.7
Chittagonians	2,962	71.6	4.8	9.2	4.8	2.7

The average monthly expenditure on rent ranges from about 1¼ rupees to over 1½ rupees per month. About three-quarters of the Hindustanis and Chittagonians, half of the Tamils and Telugus, and a third of the Uriyas live in free quarters supplied by employers. The remainder live mainly in rented dwellings, usually the lodging-houses registered by the Municipality. The living conditions in these registered buildings are appalling. " It is not unusual to find a tenement room 12½ ft. × 40 ft. occupied by as many as 40 or 50 people. The practice is for the room to be taken out by a maistry (labour contractor) at a fixed rent and with a view to making as much profit as possible he crams it with as many coolies as it will hold. In some rooms there are two sets of tenants, one set occupying it during the day and the other during the night. Families are often found in these lodging-houses, gunny-bag partitions being erected to secure a certain amount of privacy. In the dry season the men usually sleep on the footpaths and pavements and use the rooms only for cooking food and for storing their belongings — usually a deal-wood box. But during the rains they crowd into these lodging-houses until there is hardly an inch of space left either inside the room or outside on the stairs. "

Household requisites generally consist of a mat, a blanket, and a few cooking pots. The furniture is usually a box. The chief items of miscellaneous expenditure are liquor (Tamils, Telugus and Uriyas only), tobacco, and betel. Telugus spend most on liquor — an average of over two rupees a month. It is pointed out that this is not surprising as " most of the hard manual work in Rangoon is done by them and when their work is over they are often too tired to take ordinary food. Bad housing conditions, no home life, and the absence of any healthy recreation are also factors. " About 70 per cent. of the Hindustanis

do not incur any expenditure on tobacco; among the other races the percentage not consuming tobacco was only about 5 to 10. The amounts paid as interest on debts were impossible to estimate. Various deductions are made by maistries from the wages of the coolies, but the coolies do not know exactly how much is deducted or for what purpose. Considerable sums are spent by certain races on marriages and funerals.

Cost of Living

The report gives index numbers showing changes in the cost of living each month from January 1914 to March 1928. Separate series of index numbers for each group of expenditure and for the total cost of living were compiled for Burmese workers and for the chief Indian races. The table below gives index numbers of the total cost of living for December of each year 1920 to 1927 and for the latest month included in the report (March 1928). The cost of living reached its highest level about the end of 1921. Throughout recent years the rise over the 1913 level has been considerably greater for Hindustanis than for the other races. "This is mainly due to the fact that they use ghee, which has gone up appreciably in price, whereas the other races use only sesamum or mustard oil, which have not gone up so much."

INDEX NUMBERS OF THE COST OF LIVING OF THE WORKING CLASSES IN RANGOON

(Base year: 1913 = 100)

Period[1]	Burmese	Tamils, Telugus, and Uriyas	Hindustanis	Chittagonians
1920	141	141	159	145
1921	158	154	175	164
1922	135	143	152	137
1923	137	137	144	138
1924	135	141	150	137
1925	129	135	146	130
1926	138	138	151	137
1927	131	133	147	132
1928	134	136	148	136

[1] December of each year except 1928 (March).

Conditions of Employment

The chief classes of employment are factory labour, especially in rice mills, and labour outside factories, including shipping and transport labour, and also casual labour (rickshaw and handcart pullers, sampan-wallas, etc.). The number of women and children employed in factories in Rangoon is small.

Rice milling is the most important industry in Rangoon. Large numbers of the labourers employed in rice mills are maistry coolies, i.e. coolies who are recruited and paid by the employers' labour contractors or maistries. Various abuses arise in the recruitment of labour by the maistries and in the deductions they make from the wages of the coolies. Advances and travelling expenses are paid by sub-maistries or their agents. " On arrival in the mill the recruits are usually made to sign their names or give their thumb impressions on a printed form of agreement or on a piece of blank paper. The amount is afterwards entered by the maistries. " The paddy carriers recruited in India always arrive in Burma indebted to the sub-maistries and usually remain so for the rest of their lives.

" As a rule the employers know little or nothing about the relations between the maistries and their coolies. The coolies are afraid to represent their grievances to the employers, and the employers, on the other hand, do not think it their business to interfere. The main concern of the employers is, of course, to get the work done with as little trouble as possible. They do not claim that the maistry system has no faults, or that it is not expensive, but the majority are of the opinion that on the whole it works satisfactorily. " They are naturally reluctant to change over from a system which, though it may have drawbacks, at any rate works.

The maistry system is also in operation for stevedore coolies, who are, however, usually recruited locally. " Stevedore gangs work in shifts, one from 6 or 7 a.m. to 5 p.m., and the other from 6 or 7 p.m. to 5 a.m., i.e. from 10 to 11 hours a day. The work goes on without any break, the operatives taking a short time off by turn for refreshments, etc. "

In large mills and factories some sort of housing accommodation is usually provided for the majority of the workers, but in the smaller mills and factories housing is either not provided at all, or, if provided, can accommodate only a very small proportion. The Indian working classes who are not provided with quarters by employers usually obtain accommodation in the buildings registered in the Municipal books as lodging-houses. The appalling conditions in these lodging houses have already been indicated.

Migratory Child Workers in Pennsylvanian Agriculture[1]

By the term " migratory " child workers is understood city children who accompany their parents (very occasionally adult persons not their parents) into the country and take part in fruit picking and other similar work there from spring to autumn (May to November). The children mostly come from the city of Philadelphia and cross into the State of New Jersey for this purpose. An investigation was carried out by the United States Federal Children's Bureau seven years ago.[2] Modern methods in the packing and even in the picking of fruits have since been introduced, and there had been an impression that the migratory work of children in this direction had declined ; the present study was made with a view to ascertaining the present position.

The enquiry was made between 18 and 20 January 1928. It was ascertained that 1,920 children migrated for the fruit season ; 1,617 or 85.7 per cent. were under 14 years of age. The Child Labour Laws both of Pennsylvania and of New Jersey make 14 years the minimum age at which children may be employed, but in neither State does this law cover agriculture. Children may therefore legally be employed in picking fruit (95 per cent. of all children employed in agriculture), packing, weeding, hoeing, etc. Canning is not considered an agricultural occupation and is an illegal occupation for children under 14 ; only 31 children reported that they had been employed on canning ; of these 25 were under 14 and therefore had been illegally employed.

The children worked, as a rule, the same hours as their parents. Reports of an 8, a 9, and even an 11 or 12 hour day were given, and many school teachers stated that children worked seven days a week, especially during the busy season.

The principal attention of the report is directed to ascertaining the effects of this form of child labour on school attendance. Not only did the children absent themselves from school before the end of the spring term, but they returned very late in the autumn term ; 80 per cent. of the children missed one month or more of school, and 20 per cent. three months or more ; the school attendance year is approximately 8½ months. Of these only 119 children, or 6 per cent. of the whole number, had any opportunity of attending another school in the country, and such attendance was sporadic. Many children stated that they had been doing such harvest work for several years.

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[1] COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA. DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR AND INDUSTRY: *Migratory Child Workers and School Attendance.* Special Bulletin No. 26. Harrisburg, 1928. 20 pp.

[2] UNITED STATES. DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR, CHILDREN'S BUREAU : *Work of Children on Truck and Small Fruit Farms in Southern New Jersey.* Publication No. 132.

The effects of this interference with the child's attendance at school were clearly traceable in the deficient standards of education attained. Of the migratory children 64 per cent. were over-age for the grade in which they were placed, as contrasted with a general average of only 36 per cent. over-age for their grade among all elementary school children in Philadelphia. The report further points out that even the children who remain at school suffer greatly from this interference with school attendance, as more than half the pupils in certain districts in the city are absentees, so that the whole work of the class is disorganised.

STATISTICS

Recent Wage Changes in Various Countries[1]

Australia

The information available as to wage rates in Australia is obtained primarily from awards, determinations, and collective agreements under Commonwealth and State Acts and relates to the minimum wage rates prescribed. Where these were not available, the ruling union or predominant rate of wage has been ascertained from employers and trade unions. The particulars obtained relate to 4,256 adult occupations (3,948 male and 308 female), and the average figures (given in tables I and II) are weighted so as to take account of the individual rates, and the number of workers in the different occupations and the different States.

Wages of males during the last four years have pursued a steadily upward tendency, especially during the years 1924, 1925, and 1926. In 1927 and 1928, the level of wages in all industrial groups was slightly above that of the previous year. For females the increases have been more regular than for males. In both cases, however, the level of wages in 1928 was about 6 per cent. higher than in 1924.

For industrial occupations (i.e. omitting agriculture, domestic service, etc.) the range of average wages for males is very small, from 97s. 4d. in road transport to 114s. 1d. in books and printing, compared with a range of 48s. 10d. (shipping) to 65s. (building) in 1914. Thus the higher-paid groups in 1914 have received generally smaller increases than the lower-paid groups.

The increase in nominal wages in the years 1924, 1925, and 1926 was accompanied by an increase in the cost of living; in 1927, however, the slight increase in nominal wages was accompanied by a fall in the cost of living. The following table, published by the Australian Government, compares the movement of nominal wages and real wages (i.e. wages in terms of purchasing power). The figures in column (2) are based on averages of quarterly figures and differ slightly from those based on table I. The official figures relate to 1911 as base, but they have been recalculated for the base 1914 = 100.

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[1] For previous articles in this series cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVII, No. 5, May 1928 (Great Britain); No. 6, June (France, Belgium); Vol. XVIII, No. 1, July (Denmark, Norway, Sweden); No. 2, Aug. (Spain); No. 3, Sept. (Netherlands, Switzerland); Nos. 4-5, Oct.-Nov. (Germany); No. 6, Dec. (Austria, Poland); Vol. XIX, No. 1, Jan. 1929 (Czechoslovakia, Hungary); No. 2, Feb. (United States).

Year	Nominal wage index	Retail price index	Real wage index for full work
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1914	100	100	100
1924	170	148	116
1925	172	151	114
1926	177	157	113
1927	180	153	117

As shown in previous wage studies of the International Labour Office[1], real wages remained below the 1914 level during the years 1914-1920 and rose above it during the years 1921-1923. As will be seen from the above table, real wages of adult male workers were 16 per cent. above the pre-war level in 1924, fell slightly in the two following years, and rose substantially in 1927 to about 17 per cent. above the 1914 level.

Detailed statistics for individual occupations are also published at yearly intervals for the capital city of each State. Figures for a few of the more important occupations for Melbourne and Sydney are given in table III. These figures show the same general tendency during the four years as those in tables I and II.

TABLE I. WEIGHTED AVERAGE NOMINAL WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF ADULT MALE WORKERS FOR A FULL WEEK'S WORK IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES IN AUSTRALIA, 1914, AND 1925-1928[1]

Industry	1914 30 April		1925 31 Dec.		1926 31 Dec.		1927 31 Dec.		1928 31 March	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Wood, furniture, etc.	58	6	101	2	104	5	104	6	104	11
Engineering	57	0	100	4	102	0	102	10	102	11
Food, drink, etc.	55	0	96	6	98	9	99	8	99	10
Clothing, boots	52	3	93	2	96	6	98	3	99	4
Books, printing, etc.	63	3	109	6	111	5	113	7	114	1
Other manufacturing	55	1	98	4	100	6	101	4	101	7
Building	65	0	108	5	110	8	112	10	113	2
Mining	65	1	108	7	109	6	109	9	110	0
Railways, etc.	59	8	100	6	102	6	103	1	103	9
Other land transport	51	0	93	3	95	6	97	4	97	4
Shipping, etc.[2]	48	10	104	8	103	7	103	7	104	8
Agriculture, etc.[2]	49	5	87	4	93	5	94	3	95	10
Domestic, etc.[2]	47	0	89	1	90	10	93	3	93	3
Miscellaneous	53	7	93	11	95	6	96	0	96	4
All industrial groups	55	1	96	9	99	4	100	2	100	9

[1] *Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics.*
[2] Including estimated value of board and lodging, where provided.

[1] Cf. *Wage Changes in Various Countries, 1914-1925.* Studies and Reports, Series D, No. 15. Geneva, 1926.

TABLE II. WEIGHTED AVERAGE NOMINAL WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF ADULT FEMALE WORKERS FOR A FULL WEEK'S WORK IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES IN AUSTRALIA, 1914, AND 1925-1928[1]

Industry	1914 April	1925 31 Dec.	1926 31 Dec.	1927 31 Dec.	1928 31 March
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Food, drink, etc.	22 6	45 8	47 8	48 9	48 9
Clothing, boots	24 9	50 1	51 7	52 7	53 11
Other manufacturing	26 11	51 2	52 10	53 2	53 8
Domestic, hotels[2]	31 1	51 0	52 0	54 5	54 5
Shop assistants, clerks, etc.	30 2	52 0	52 0	52 8	52 8
All groups	27 2	50 7	51 8	52 10	53 7

[1] *Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics.*
[2] Including estimated value of board and lodging, where provided.

TABLE III. NOMINAL WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF VARIOUS GROUPS OF WORKERS IN SYDNEY AND MELBOURNE, 1914, 1920, AND 1922-1927[1]

A. Sydney

Industry and group of workers	1914 July	1920	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Metal workers :								
Turners	70 0	126 5	107 0	113 0	108 6	112 6	115 6	114 6
Labourers	48 0	—	81 0	85 0	85 0	93 0	96 0	95 0
Building :								
Bricklayers	78 0	108 0	109 1	113 1	113 1	113 1	113 1	126 6
Carpenters	72 0	110 0	103 1½	107 4	121 0	121 0	125 7	127 6
Labourers	60 6	99 0	94 5	101 9	95 4	99 11	103 7	102 8
Printing (jobbing) :								
Compositors	65 0	105 0	98 0	102 0	102 0	110 0	114 0	112 0
Textiles (woollens) :								
Spinners	48 0	85 6	78 6	82 6	82 6	84 6	88 0	89 0
Transport :								
Engine drivers (1st class)	96 0	133 0	126 0	130 0	130 0	133 0	136 0	136 0
Firemen (1st class)	66 0	103 0	96 0	100 0	100 0	103 0	106 0	106 0
Miscellaneous :								
Cabinet makers	60 0	104 0	98 1	102 0	102 0	102 0	110 0	111 0
Bakers	50 0	102 6	96 6	100 6	100 6	102 6	127 6	128 6

[1] Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics. The figures are minimum rates quoted from latest award, determination, or agreement in force at 31 December of each year.

TABLE III (*cont.*)

B. Melbourne

Industry and group of workers	1914 July	1920	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Metal works :								
Turners	66 0	122 10	106 6	115 6	108 6	111 6	113 6	113 6
Labourers	46 6	—	84 0	87 0	85 0	87 6	89 6	89 6
Building :								
Bricklayers	71 6	93 6	110 0	110 0	110 0	123 9	129 3	129 3
Carpenters	69 8	102 8	102 8	124 8	117 4	120 1	137 6	122 10
Labourers	56 10	82 6	94 5	105 5	97 2	99 11	101 9	102 8
Printing (jobbing) :								
Compositors	66 0	96 0	106 0	106 0	115 6	110 0	114 0	112 0
Textiles (woollens) :								
Spinners	50 0	79 0	85 0	85 0	85 0	84 0	85 0	88 6
Transport :								
Engine drivers (1st class)	87 0	123 0	123 0	117 0	122 6	135 0	136 0	137 0
Firemen (1st class)	57 0	96 0	96 0	93 0	98 6	105 0	106 0	107 0
Miscellaneous :								
Cabinet makers	60 0	93 6	101 6	101 6	112 0	108 6	109 6	108 0
Bakers	76 0	120 0	120 0	120 0	120 0	120 0	120 0	128 4

New Zealand

The material used in the compilation of wage statistics for New Zealand is collected almost entirely from the awards of the Arbitration Court. While it is recognised that such rates are minimum rates and that wages may in some cases be above the prescribed minima, yet for the purpose of tracing the movement in wage rates over a period of time, the award rates form a reliable basis. The figures are summarised in tables I and II, table I relating to industrial occupations, and table II to agricultural. The figures are carefully weighted averages.

During the period 1924-1927 wages remained fairly stable, with a tendency to increase, especially in 1927. The year of maximum money wages was in 1921, whereas the cost of living reached its maximum in 1920. The movement of nominal and real wages for certain years since 1914 is shown in the following table compiled by the New Zealand Government. The nominal wage index numbers are based on the weighted wage rates of both table I and table II.

Year	Nominal wage index	Real wage index
1914	100	100
1919	127.5	81.2
1921	158.7	89.4
1924	153.9	95.9
1925	156.5	96.5
1926	158.3	97.3
1927	159.4	98.7

This table shows the fall in real wages in 1919-1921, a sharp rise to 1924, and a steady increase since that date, real wages being in 1927 almost at their pre-war level.

The level of money wages for adult male workers does not show any very marked fluctuation between different occupations, and in 1927 the level of wages in different occupations was on the whole less dispersed than in 1914. Thus workers in building and construction, who received relatively high wages in 1914, have received up to 1927 the smallest increase, and low-paid occupations, such as the food, drink, and tobacco group, have received larger increases.

TABLE I. AVERAGE WEEKLY MINIMUM WAGE RATES IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES IN NEW ZEALAND, 1914, AND 1924-1927 [1]

Industry and occupation	1914	1924	1925	1926	1927
	s. d.	s. d	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Food and drink :					
Bakers (journeymen)	55 0	91 6	97 6	97 6	97 6
Butchers (first shopmen)	72 6	102 9	106 7	116 10	116 10
Meat freezing (chamber hands)	64 0				
Meat preservers	59 6	101 2	96 3	96 3	99 0
Brewing (labourers)	47 7 ½	80 1	82 10	83 0	83 0
Clothing and textiles :					
Tailors, factory hands	56 0	81 10	84 0	84 0	87 6
Tailoresses (shop), coat hands	30 0	45 10	45 11	47 8	50 0
Boot operators, males	52 6	84 4	85 3	85 3	85 3
Woollen mills :					
Male spinners	51 0	85 9	85 9	85 9	93 9
General hands	46 6	74 6	74 6	74 6	82 6
Adult females	26 3	41 0	41 0	41 0	45 0
Building industry :					
Bricklayers	68 5 ¼	99 11	99 11	99 11	99 11
Carpenters and joiners	64 3 ½	97 2	97 2	92 7	101 9
Plasterers	67 9 ½	96 10	96 10	96 10	99 11
Plumbers	66 0	94 5	95 4	95 4	95 4
Labourers (general)	52 6 ½	76 7	79 0	83 5	83 5
Sawmilling :					
Engine drivers	54 0	88 5	95 0	104 6	104 6
Sawyers	53 0 ½	94 11	100 0	103 4	103 4
Labourers	51 0	80 5	83 4	84 4	84 4
Ship and boat building :					
Shipwrights	62 8	95 7	100 4	100 4	101 2
Boatbuilders	58 9	92 4	92 4	92 4	99 4

[1] *New Zealand Official Year Book*, 1928. The figures are average rates in four principal industrial districts and refer to 31 March of each year.

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Industry and occupation	1914	1924	1925	1926	1927
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Metal works, etc. :					
Blacksmiths	61 7	89 11	89 11	95 4	99 0
Boiler makers (journeymen)	62 8	94 3	95 4	95 4	99 0
Moulders (iron and brass)	64 7 ½	91 11	95 4	95 4	99 0
Engineering :					
Fitters, etc.	64 7 ½	94 5	95 4	95 4	99 0
Electrical workers	61 10 ½	94 1	95 4	95 4	99 0
Motor mechanics	64 11 ½	94 5	95 1	95 4	99 0
Skin and leather :					
Curriers	58 0	95 0	95 0	95 0	102 0
General hands	49 6	79 0	84 4	84 4	85 8
Mineral and stone workers :					
Brickmakers	53 11 ½	99 0	100 0	100 0	103 2
General hands	46 9 ¾	83 0	84 0	85 4	85 4
Coalmining :					
Surface tippers	53 7 ½	84 2	85 10	85 10	90 8
Labourers	54 3 ¾	86 10	85 10	85 10	90 8
Miners (hewers)	63 3	103 4	99 9	99 9	110 2
Truckers	55 11	92 8	91 8	91 8	94 1
Railways :					
Engine drivers (1st grade)	75 0	108 1	109 11	109 11	109 11
Firemen	60 0	93 9	90 3	90 3	90 3
Shipping and cargo working[1]					
Assistants, stewards (1st class)	40 4 ½	86 0	89 3	89 3	108 3
Ordinary seamen	41 1 ¾	68 6	74 3	74 3	89 3

[1] Including the estimated value of board and lodging.

TABLE II. AVERAGE NOMINAL WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF VARIOUS CATEGORIES OF AGRICULTURAL WORKERS IN NEW ZEALAND, 1914, AND 1924-1927[1]

Category of workers	1914	1924	1925	1926	1927
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Agricultural and pastoral workers :					
General farm hands	41 8	51 7	50 11	50 11	54 4
Harvesters	64 4	105 5	101 10	101 10	105 6
Ploughmen	45 8	60 11	57 6	57 6	65 4
Musterers	53 10	102 1	105 0	105 0	110 0
Shepherds	46 6	55 5	56 8	56 8	75 0
Wool pressers	48 0	72 9	79 5	79 5	95 9

[1] *New Zealand Official Year Book*, 1928. The estimated value of board and lodging is included.

Union of South Africa

European Labour

Average weekly wage rates are published at yearly intervals by the Office of Census and Statistics. The data cover ten industrial groups and the nine principal industrial centres of the Union. In addition, average real wages are given both in money and as index numbers.

Table I summarises the figures for the Union as a whole for the four years 1923-1926, thus continuing the figures published by the International Labour Office in 1926.[1] Later figures are not available, but the figures for certain occupations in 1928 have recently been issued, and are given in table II for each of the nine localities. These figures are now published at quarterly intervals, but with one or two exceptions the rates have remained unchanged during the last four years.

Figures for female workers are given in table III for the years 1923-1925. No figures are available for 1926 and no averages for all industries are computed.

The level of money wages in the Union has remained almost unchanged in the last four years, the general average rate having increased from 132s. 5d. in 1923 to 132s. 8d. in 1926. The partial statistics available for 1928 indicate that since 1926 there has been little further change. The movement of real wages during the period covered has been very slightly upward, owing to a slight steady fall in the cost of living. The general index of real wages for the nine industries given in table I reached a maximum in 1921, when it stood at about 9 per cent. above the 1914 level. In 1923 it fell to about 3 per cent. above the 1914 level, remained at this level for 1924 and 1925, and rose to a little over 5 per cent. in 1926. The official real wage index numbers for the years 1925 and 1926 are also shown in table I. It should be noted, however, that these are based on the year 1910 (= 100), when real wages were somewhat higher than they were in 1914. With the two exceptions of mining, and engineering and metal working, where real wages are relatively low, all industries show a definite increase in real wages.

Coloured and Native Labour

In occupations as a whole, the non-European element preponderates to a considerable extent. Wage rates for non-Eu opean workers in d fferent occupations were collected for the first time in 1921. In skilled crafts many coloured workers have attained a degree of skill which enables them to command wages little below the rates for Europeans, although average rates are not available. In the manufacturing industries varying degrees of skill have been reached by coloured employees. Table IV gives the average weekly wage rates paid to non-European male unskilled workers in certain industrial areas at 30 September 1925. The highest averages are in respect of the Cape Peninsula, owing to the relatively higher level of skill and semi-skill reached by coloured workers in that area.

[1] Cf. *Wage Changes in Various Countries, 1914-1925.*

In mining, the work is carried on chiefly by non-Europeans, but in this industry the workers receive free quarters and food, and money wages do not reflect the total advantages of the worker. In September 1927 the average earnings of all native labourers in gold mining were 2s. 2d. per shift, *plus* allowances in kind estimated to cost 11d. per shift.

TABLE I. AVERAGE NOMINAL WEEKLY WAGE RATES AND INDEX NUMBERS OF REAL WAGES OF EUROPEAN ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES IN SOUTH AFRICA, 1914, AND 1923-1926[1]

Industrial group	Nominal weekly wage rates					Index numbers of real wages (1910 = 100)	
	1914 31 Dec.	1923 30 Sept.	1924 30 Sept.	1925 30 Sept.	1926 30 Sept.	1925	1926
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.		
Mining[2]	115 11	139 10	141 8	138 4	140 8	81.8	84.3
Engineering, etc.	105 7	123 9	123 9	127 5	127 6	85.9	87.2
Building	100 7	135 1	135 1	135 4	135 4	97.6	99.0
Printing, bookbinding	99 9	153 5	144 2	144 2	144 2	104.2	105.7
Manufacturing	84 11	116 3	115 3	115 7	116 6	98.7	100.8
Transport	89 6	125 0	126 11	127 8	128 3	110.3	112.4
Trading	86 0	135 1	132 8	131 10	131 1	111.1	112.0
Clerical	102 0	142 11	143 6	143 3	143 1	100.1	101.5
Domestic (hotels, etc.)[2]	63 5	106 7	102 5	101 1	100 11	114.8	116.3
Miscellaneous	84 4	125 2	120 11	122 7	122 9	106.0	107.7
All groups	97 9	132 5	132 3	132 3	132 8	97.3	99.0

[1] *Official Year Book of the Union of South Africa*, No. 9.
[2] Including from 1920 onwards the estimated value of board and lodging, or in some cases board only.

TABLE II. STANDARD OR AVERAGE WAGE RATES OF EUROPEAN ADULT MALE WORKERS, 30 JUNE AND 30 SEPTEMBER 1928[1]

Locality	Engineering and metal-working	Building		Printing, bookbinding, etc.			
	Per day	Per hour		Per week			
	(*a*)	(*b*)	(*c*)	(*d*)	(*e*)	(*f*)	(*g*)
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Cape Peninsula	20 8	2 2	2 10	134 9	148 3	122 6	134 9
Port Elizabeth	20 8	2 5	2 10	134 9	148 3	122 6	134 9
East London	21 0	2 5	2 10	134 9	148 3	122 6	134 9
Kimberley	22 6	2 3	2 10	145 9	160 4	132 6	145 9
Pietermaritzburg	20 0	2 10	3 2	134 9	148 3	122 6	134 9
Durban	22 0	2 10	3 2	156 9	172 5	142 6	156 9
Pretoria	22 0	3 3	3 5	167 9	184 6	152 6	167 9
Witwatersrand	22 0	3 3	3 5	167 9	184 6	152 6	167 9
Bloemfontein	20 4	2 11	3 5	156 9	172 5	142 6	156 9

[1] *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics*, Aug. 1928.
(*a*) Rates for blacksmiths, boilermakers, brassfinishers, coppersmiths, fitters, moulders, pattern-makers, turners, electricians, and wiremen.
(*b*) Rates for painters, glaziers, paperhangers, and decorators.
(*c*) Rates for all other building artisans, including electricians and wiremen.
(*d*) Rates for typesetting machine operators (day work).
(*e*) Rates for typesetting machine operators (night work).
(*f*) Rates for other printing occupations (day work).
(*g*) Rates for other printing occupations (night work).

TABLE III. AVERAGE NOMINAL WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF EUROPEAN ADULT FEMALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES IN SOUTH AFRICA, 1914, AND 1923-1925

Industrial group	1914 31 Dec.	1923 30 Sept.	1924 30 Sept.	1925 30 Sept.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Printing	24 4	42 0	39 9	38 6
Manufacturing	26 7	52 10	51 2	50 2
Transport	47 8	74 9	79 1	79 8
Trading	39 6	54 11	53 9	55 3
Clerical	47 3	67 1	64 0	64 1
Domestics	29 1	59 0	57 11	58 3

TABLE IV. AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF COLOURED AND NATIVE MALE UNSKILLED WORKERS IN CAPE PENINSULA, PRETORIA, AND BLOEMFONTEIN, 30 SEPTEMBER 1925

Unskilled occupations connected with:	Cape Peninsula	Pretoria	Bloemfontein
	s. d.	s. d	s. d.
Engineering	30 4	20 8	19 11
Building	27 10	19 3	14 11
Printing	33 9	23 11	24 11
Manufacturing	27 3	17 11	21 6
Trading	30 10	19 1	19 2
Municipal Service	36 5	16 0	17 4

A New Index Number of British Wages

The Existing Index Number

The London and Cambridge Economic Service has for some time been publishing an index number of wages in Great Britain. This number is an unweighted average of the percentage change, compared with pre-war rates, in eleven occupations or industries, namely, bricklayers, bricklayers' labourers, compositors, fitters, labourers in engineering, railwaymen, dock labourers, cotton operatives, wool and worsted operatives, coal miners, and agricultural labourers. These eleven figures were considered typical of wage movements in all occupations, and it was also thought that an unweighted average was more likely to reflect general changes than an average weighted in proportion to the numbers employed. It has been found, however, that its general level was too low in relation to 1914 for some of the applications made of it, and the results of the national enquiry into earnings in 1924 now enable a closer

estimate of the change in wages or earnings since 1914 to be made.

A careful calculation of the approximate increase in average earnings in a normal week between 1914 and 1924 was made, and the conclusion was reached that a general increase of 95 per cent. is the best estimate that can be made, but that it may be as low as 90 per cent. The index number of 195 is therefore taken for the end of the year 1924, without making any allowance for complete unemployment. This index number allows not only for (1) changes in time rates and piece rates, but also for (2) changes in facilities for earnings on piece rates, and for (3) the shifting of the relative numbers and re-grading within an industry. The last two changes are of considerable importance, for in the ten years since 1914 considerable changes in the arrangement of occupations in many industries, the readjustment of the work of men and women, and modification of machinery and equipment, have been made, which have caused average earnings to increase more rapidly than average rates. The Ministry of Labour in fact calculates a general index number of changes in average rates, ignoring all other factors, and reaches an estimate of 170 to 175 for December 1924, contrasted with the above figure of 195, in which facilities for increased earnings and the shifting of relative numbers in an industry are allowed for. A further factor is that of the influence of different rates of growth of the different industries, but it is assumed that this factor, though of considerable influence in pre-war periods, does not make any significant change for the period 1914-1924.

Hourly earnings are estimated to have increased between 110 and 120 per cent., since the reduction in hours of labour was at least 10 per cent. in the period.

On the basis of the official cost-of-living index number (175 at the end of 1924), real weekly earnings are estimated to be about 10 per cent., and real hourly earnings between 20 and 25 per cent., above the 1914 level.

The Proposed New Index Number

The basis of the new index number is that the level in December 1924 was 195 as given above, and subsequent monthly computations are based on an extended list of entries. It is necessary to limit the list to those changes which can be ascertained promptly every month and to such a number as can be conveniently handled in a short time. The new groups now included are shipbuilding (piece-rate changes); labourers in non-trading services (local authorities) (time rates); tram drivers and conductors (time rates); lorry drivers (time rates); boot and shoe making (national time rates for women); sugar and confectionery; ready-made tailoring; shirt making; and tobacco (minimum time rates for women). The total number of groups is now 20, and the changes in each of these groups are expressed as percentages of the level at December 1924, and a weighted average taken. It will be seen that, from December 1924, only changes in time and piece rates are taken into consideration; the changes due to other factors, such as facility of earnings and movements within an industry, will be brought in from time

to time as estimates of earnings by industries become available. At present only miners' earnings are available at frequent intervals.

The results are given (for quarterly intervals only) in the following table up to December 1928. On the basis of the Ministry of Labour cost-of-living index numbers, average real wages for the normal week (full employment) had risen about 16 per cent. from July 1914 to December 1928.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WAGES

(*Base: July 1914 = 100; Dec. 1924 = 195*)

Year	March	July	Sept.	Dec.
1925	196½	196	196	196
1926	196	196	196	197
1927	197	196	196½	196
1928	194½	194½	194	194

Employment and Unemployment

Table I giving unemployment statistics shows for certain countries the percentage of workers unemployed. In some cases these percentages are based on data compiled by the trade unions in respect of their members, while in other cases they refer to the workers covered by unemployment insurance laws. For some countries for which no such data are available information is given as to the numbers registered at various dates at the employment exchanges as unemployed or the number of unemployed workers who have received assistance. Table II gives index numbers of employment for certain countries.

In the *Review* for July 1924 and later months an outline was given of the methods by which the statistics given in the tables are compiled, together with particulars of the original sources in which they are published.

United States of America: *American Federationist.*

The American Federation of Labour has recently commenced the publication of a series of figures showing the percentage of its workers unemployed. The local unions in 23 cities now report monthly their membership and the number unemployed at the beginning of the month. The percentage unemployed is then calculated for the month and for the previous month by using the returns of unions which answer for the two months. This process is repeated a month later, and the average of the two figures so obtained for the central month of the three is taken as the final figure for that month. No information is available as to the number of workers covered, but it is stated that the reports cover all trades which are organised, factory workers as well as teachers and building workers.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany					Australia		Belgium			
	Trade unionists					Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies			
	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed		Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.				Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1923 Feb.	431,765	10.4	151,646	3.6	1,237,504	*	*	7,480	1.2	24,932	4.0
March	383,224	9.2	155,797	3.7	1,121,150	45,638	10.7	5,294	0.8	17,108	2.7
April	295,135	6.9	180,712	4.2	729,329	*	*	4,922	0.8	17,769	2.8
May	270,103	6.3	215,759	5.0	629,470	*	*	4,032	0.7	22,574	3.6
June	268,443	6.2	255,090	5.9	610,687	46,656	11.2	3,709	0 6	19,115	3.0
July	273,696	6 3	283,562	6.5	564,034	*	*	4,471	0 7	23 768	3.8
Aug.	288.375	6.5	312,051	7.1	574,475	*	*	3,397	0 5	23 888	3.8
Sept.	293,691	6.6	303,466	6.9	577,093	47,745	11.4	3,464	0.6	20.561	3.3
Oct.	325,293	7.3	303,737	6.8	670,997	*	*	3,957	0.6	22,458	3.5
Nov.	427.516	9.5	339,461	7.6	1,029 658	*	*	3,497[1]	0.6[1]	13,832[1]	2.2[1]
Dec.	748,760	16.7	336,270	7.5	1,702,342	—	9.9	—	—	—	—
1924 Jan.	—	—	—	—	2,029,387[2]	*	*	—	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	4,483,600				*	419,899		626,876			

[1] Approximate figures. [2] Figure for 15 January.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Austria	Canada		Denmark		Estonia	United States		
	Compulsory insurance	Trade unionists		Trade union unemployment funds		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		
							Percentage unemployed		
	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.		Building	Other industries	All industries
1928									
Feb.	223,964	12,522[1]	7.0	71,200[1]	25.9	4,113	39	10	18
March	193,449	11,965	6.5	61,600[1]	21.3	3,134	38	10	18
April	154,817	9,573	5.2	42,243[1]	16.6	2,162	32	9	16
May	130,393	6,667	3.7	39,117[1]	14.0	1,470	25	8	13
June	118,737	5,800	3.2	37,503[1]	13.5	883	22	7	11
July	115,211	4,500[1]	2.5	37,037[1]	13.6	486	24	8	12
Aug.	113,851	4,274	2.4	35,600[1]	13.1	467	19	6	9
Sept.	112,595	4,068	2.2	33,100[1]	12.2	706	—	—	—
Oct.	122,557	5,705	3.1	40,100[1]	14.8	1,561	—	—	—
Nov.	155,235	—	—	47,700[1]	17.6	4,369	—	—	—
Dec.	237,661	—	—	67,850[1]	25.0	7,770	—	—	—
1929									
Jan.	—	—	—	74,900	27,6	—	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	184,580		272,428		•	•		

Date (end of month)	Finland	France	Great Britain and Northern Ireland				Hungary			Irish Free State	
			Compulsory insurance				Trade unionists			Compulsory insurance	
			Wholly unemployed		Temporary stoppages		Christian	Social-Democratic			
	Number of unemployed registered	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1928 Feb.	2,535	14,408	967,595	8.2	259,909	2.2	1,029	16,215	10.8	31,949	13.0
March	2,139	10,473	903,805	7.7	223,817	1.9	1,054	15,194	10.0	•	•
April	1,482	7,273	898,019	7.6	222,729	2.0	1,016	14,027	9.3	•	•
May	868	3,746	893,304	7.6	274,705	2.3	955	13,275	8.7	26,449	10.8
June	811	1,659	917,726	7.8	355,634	3.0	1,001	12,860	8.5	•	•
July	762	1,095	958,567	8.1	418,464	3.6	875	12,242	8.1	•	•
Aug.	857	1,010	979,926	8.3	395,293	3.4	832	12,523	8.3	22,843	9.3
Sept.	946	562	1,019,179	8.6	335,832	2.9	818	12,134	8.0	•	•
Oct.	1,600	453	1,059,429	8.9	344,482	2.9	1,003	12,212	9.3	•	•
Nov.	3,045	503	1,105,974	9.3	347,243	2.9	841	12,813	9.6	27,724	9.9
Dec.	2,868	895	1,083,207	9.1	250,504	2.1	825	14,362	—	•	•
1929 Jan.	—	1,664	1,169,633	9.8	296,104	2.5	—	—	—	•	•
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	•	11,881,500				•	151,100[1]		280,905	

[1] Approximate figures.

The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Italy		Latvia	Norway			New Zealand		Netherlands	
	Number of unemployed registered		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists (10 unions)		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies	
	Wholly unempl.	Partially unempl.		Number unemployed	Per cent.		Number unemployed	Per cent	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1928 Feb.	413,383	58.109	6,461	8,642	25.9	28,290	6,605	11.4	27,505	9.0
March	411,785	47,036	5,570	8,130	24.4	26,692	*	*	19,740	6 3
April	356,795	45,833	2,950	7,654	28.8	24,719	*	*	15,620	5.0
May	306,629	45,569	1,295	—	18.0	19.871	6,478	11.5	14.083	4.4
June	247,021	30,296	1,223	4,925	14.4	16,747	*	*	14,302	4.4
July	234,210	27,590	928	4,674	13.6	15,365	*	*	17.100	5.3
Aug.	248,100	24,319	965	4,834	13.9	15,817	6,298	11.3	16 670	5.2
Sept.	268,883	28,746	1.914	—	—	17,180	*	*	15,697	4.7
Oct.	282,379	25,489	5,179	5,677	16.1	20 464	*	*	15,038	5 1
Nov.	321,123	24,814	9.184	6,171	17.4	23,033	5,523	10.0	18 579	6.2
Dec.	363,551	27,278	14.030	—	—	24 223	*	*	35,000[1]	10.6[1]
1929 Jan.	—	—	62,840	—	—	24,393	*	*	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*		*	35,383		*	55,343		335,000[1]	

Date (end of month)	Poland	Russia	Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom	Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia	
	Number unemployed registered	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number unemployed registered	Trade unionists		Unemployment funds		Trade union insurance funds	
				Number unemployed	Per cent.	Per cent. unemployed		Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Per cent.
						Wholly	Partially		
1928 Feb.	179,644	1,482,800	18,968	35,183	13.2	*	*	20.131	1 8
March	167,676	1,576,400	7,582	36.722	13.3	1.9	1.0	17,734	1.6
April	153,016	1,598,700	9.123	32,218	11 7	*	*	16 083	1.4
May	135,542	1,57[illegible],060	6,820	22,978	8.2	*	*	16,556	1.4
June	116,247	1.471.320	5,606	21,257	7.6	1.2	0.8	18,408	1.2
July	100,487	1,339,810	4,696	20,238	7.4	*	*	13,627	1.2
Aug.	90,976	1,344,000	4,106	19,826	7 1	*	*	15,588	1.4
Sept.	82,642	1,374,000	,587	22.159	7.6	1.1	1.0	16.304	1 5
Oct.	79.478	—	—	27,008	9.1	*	*	13,928	1.1
Nov.	97,414	—	—	32,229	10.8	*	*	12,532	1.1
Dec.	128,144	—	—	51,298[1]	17.2	—	—	—	—
1929 Jan.	161,189	—	—	—	—	*	*	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	*	*	298,246		262,538		1,308,249[1]	

[1] Provisional figures.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany[1]	Canada[1]	Estonia[1]	United States	Switzerland
	Index number of employment				
	Membership of sickness funds on 1 Jan. 1925 = 100	Number employed on 17 Jan. 1920 = 100	Number employed on 1 Jan. 1927 = 100	Average number employed in 1923 = 100	Number employed in March 1926 = 100
1928 Feb.	104.2	101.4	108.9	85.5	•
March	105.8	101.1	110.0	86.1	106.7
April	109.5	105.5	111.7	85.7	•
May	111.8	112.4	119.1	85.5	•
June	112.3	116.3	118.7	85.6	110.1
July	112.4	119.9	120.4	84.7	•
Aug.	112.4	119.5	116.9	86.0	•
Sept.	112.1	118.9	112.1	87.3	—
Oct.	111.3	119.1	111.8	88.1	•
Nov.	—	116.7	110.3	87.7	•
Dec.	—	109.1[2]	—	87.8	—
1929 Jan.	—	—	—	—	•
Number of persons on which latest figures are based	•	981,723	39,131	4,168,820	220,819

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. [2] From 1 January 1929 onward the number employed in 1926 = 100.

The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Index Numbers of the Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Tables I to V give for a number of countries index numbers of the cost of living, food, clothing, heating and lighting, and rent. Notes on the sources and methods of compilation of the statistics were given in the *Review* for July 1924 and later months.

TABLE I. COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria	Belgium [1]	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile [2]	Denmark	Danzig	Egypt	Estonia [2]
Towns and localities	9	72	6	Vienna	59	12	60	Chile	100	Danzig	Cairo	Tallinn
1928 Jan.	132	151	*	107	209	2735	157	—	176	140	152	108
Feb.	131	151	*	107	206	2777	156	—	*	139	151	109
March	132	151	147	107	203	2791	156	—	*	140	151	111
April	133	151	*	107	204	2841	155	—	176	141	151	113
May	133	151	*	107	202	2857	155	—	*	139	149	113
June	132	151	—	109	204	2818	155	—	*	140	149	112
July	131	153	*	108	205	2861	155	—	176	140	151	116
Aug.	131	154	*	108	206	2742	157	—	*	141	153	114
Sept.	131	152	—	109	209	2757	157	—	*	141	153	112
Oct.	131	152	*	109	212	2796	157	—	172	140	155	112
Nov.	131	152	*	109	217	—	157	—	*	140	155	113
Dec.	131	153	—	109	215	—	158	—	*	142	155	113
1929 Jan.	—	153	*	109	—	—	158	—	—	—	—	—

Country	United States [2]	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [2]	India	Dutch Indies [3]	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania [2]
Towns and localities	32	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay		105	Milan	Riga	84
1928 Jan.	*	1216	*	166	155	112	148	151	177	531	102	136
Feb.	*	1206	*	164	154	112	145	148	*	533	105	136
March	*	1214	507	164	153	114	144	148	*	531	105	135
April	*	1212	*	164	153	114	147	146	170	531	106	134
May	*	1207	*	165	153	117	146	145	*	526	107	136
June	170	1219	519	165	152	118	147	144	*	530	109	136
July	*	1236	*	165	148	118	146	145	173	526	113	139
Aug.	*	1258	*	165	146	120	145	147	*	522	120	144
Sept.	*	1249	519	166	145	121	146	150	*	526	113	137
Oct.	*	1254	*	167	148	119	146	150	176	528	114	136
Nov.	*	1262	*	168	148	118	147	—	*	534	114	136
Dec.	171	1260	531	167	146	118	148	—	*	541	114	137
1929 Jan.	*	1242	*	165	—	—	148	—	177	—	—	—

Country	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands [2]	Peru [2]	Poland	Rumania	Russia [2]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Luxemburg	31	4	Amsterdam	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country	229	49	33	Prague
1928 Jan.	800	194	*	*	178	120	4090	205	*	161	734
Feb.	797	194	161	*	177	118	4120	203	*	161	732
March	795	193	*	169	176	119	4061	203	171	160	730
April	794	193	*	*	176	121	4085	206	*	160	731
May	794	193	162	*	176	121	4090	206	*	160	736
June	805	193	*	170	177	122	4099	210	173	161	734
July	813	193	*	*	175	123	4086	209	*	161	746
Aug.	821	192	161	*	175	122	4100	210	*	161	754
Sept.	831	185	*	169	175	122	4135	207	172	161	749
Oct.	836	184	*	*	169	123	4206	209	*	162	726
Nov.	844	184	163	*	168	125	4230	212	*	162	721
Dec.	845	183	*	—	168	125	4267	—	170	162	725
1929 Jan.	848	181	*	*	167	125	—	—	*	161	—

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1913 = 100. [3] 1911-1913 = 100

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received,".

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria	Belgium [1]	Bulgaria	Canada	Denmark	Egypt	Spain	Estonia [2]
Towns and localities	9	72	30	Vienna	59	12	60	100	Cairo	Madrid	Tallinn
1928 Jan.	119	152	153	118	210	2734	152	152	143	178	113
Feb.	118	151	152	117	207	2778	150	*	142	175	114
March	118	151	153	116	201	2790	149	*	139	176	117
April	119	151	154	117	202	2851	148	152	140	174	121
May	120	151	154	117	199	2889	147	*	139	171	121
June	118	152	154	122	203	2830	146	*	140	172	120
July	116	154	152	119	204	2878	147	153	144	173	127
Aug.	115	156	150	120	206	2747	151	*	143	174	124
Sept.	115	153	150	120	208	2760	152	*	148	178	119
Oct.	115	152	150	120	213	2794	154	146	154	179	120
Nov.	115	152	150	120	217	—	154	*	—	181	121
Dec.	115	153	152	119	218	—	154	*	—	—	120
1929 Jan.	—	153	—	120	—	—	154	—	—	—	—

Country	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [2]	India	Dutch Indies [3]	Irish Free State	Italy
Towns and localities	51	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay		105	Milan
1928 Jan.	151	1126	530	159	146	122	146	152	175	514
Feb.	148	1112	522	155	144	121	142	151	*	518
March	148	1123	524	155	143	124	140	150	*	516
April	149	1119	532	154	144	126	144	146	162	516
May	150	1113	546	156	145	130	142	145	*	513
June	149	1126	557	157	144	132	143	145	*	520
July	149	1155	547	156	138	131	142	146	166	513
Aug.	151	1191	540	156	134	133	141	147	*	506
Sept.	154	1174	544	157	132	133	142	148	*	513
Oct.	153	1183	566	159	138	129	142	148	171	515
Nov.	154	1194	585	160	137	127	144	—	*	526
Dec.	152	1186	555	159	133	126	145	—	*	539
1929 Jan.	—	1156	—	156	—	—	145	—	173	—

Country	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Peru	Poland	Russia	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Riga	31	4	Lima	Warsaw	229	49	33	Prague
1928 Jan.	143	170	146	153	143	208	152	159	845
Feb.	144	170	145	151	138	206	151	158	842
March	138	171	145	152	140	205	152	157	838
April	139	171	144	152	142	210	153	156	844
May	139	172	147	154	142	211	154	156	847
June	144	171	147	155	143	218	156	156	843
July	147	173	146	152	144	217	156	157	858
Aug.	151	170	146	151	143	210	156	156	871
Sept.	155	164	147	151	142	215	154	157	861
Oct.	155	163	149	142	144	214	152	158	821
Nov.	161	161	149	142	148	217	152	158	813
Dec.	—	161	152	142	147	—	151	158	820
1929 Jan.	—	158	—	142	146	—	149	—	—

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1913 = 100.

The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLES III TO V. INDEX NUMBERS OF CLOTHING, HEATING AND LIGHTING, AND RENT

Country	Germany	Austria	Belgium[1]	Canada[2]	Denmark	Spain	Estonia[2]	United States[2]	Finland	France	Great Britain	Hungary[2]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Norway	New Zealand	Poland	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	72	Vienna	59	60	100	Madrid	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	31	4	Warsaw	49	33	Prague
TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1923 Jan.	167	185	230	155	196	•	150	•	1039	•	215	135	153	196	591	•	•	169	•	162	1013
Feb.	168	185	237	155	•	•	150	•	1040	•	215	135	151	•	591	•	145	169	•	162	1013
March	169	183	240	155	•	•	150	•	1043	581	218	135	153	•	591	169	•	169	184	162	1020
April	170	183	241	157	198	•	150	•	1043	•	220	135	155	200	591	•	•	169	•	166	1020
May	170	183	240	157	•	•	150	•	1044	•	220	134	156	•	586	•	146	169	•	166	1020
June	170	183	242	157	•	•	150	163	1048	581	220	134	158	•	559	169	•	169	185	166	1033
July	171	183	244	157	198	•	150	•	1048	•	220	134	159	206	561	•	•	169	•	166	1040
Aug.	171	183	243	157	•	•	150	•	1049	•	220	134	157	•	561	•	145	169	•	166	1040
Sept.	171	183	246	157	•	•	150	•	1052	591	220	134	156	•	561	168	•	169	186	166	1032
Oct.	171	183	247	157	198	•	150	•	1052	•	220	134	156	206	555	•	•	169	•	169	1026
Nov.	172	183	248	157	•	•	150	•	1054	•	220	134	158	•	553	•	144	169	•	169	1023
Dec.	173	183	250	157	•	•	150	—	1055	591	220	—	160	•	555	—	•	169	186	169	1023
1929 Jan.	—	183	—	—	—	•	—	•	1055	•	220	—	—	206	—	•	•	—	•	169	—
TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1928 Jan.	146	100	176	159	190	169	82	•	1440	•	170	124	144	172	420	•	•	113	168	139	819
Feb.	146	100	170	159	•	169	82	•	1430	•	170	122	144	•	409	•	179	114	166	139	819
March	146	100	168	159	•	169	83	•	1438	547	170	122	145	•	407	167	•	115	166	139	819
April	145	99	168	159	190	171	81	•	1436	•	168	119	145	172	407	•	•	116	166	138	819
May	144	99	168	158	•	171	81	•	1434	•	170	119	158	•	407	•	179	120	165	137	819
June	144	99	170	158	•	171	81	177	1436	504	168	119	158	•	407	162	•	124	164	136	819
July	144	99	168	157	185	171	81	•	1424	•	165	122	158	168	407	•	•	121	—	136	819
Aug.	145	99	169	157	•	171	84	•	1421	•	165	121	151	•	407	•	179	121	—	135	819
Sept.	147	99	170	157	•	173	84	•	1429	510	168	127	144	•	407	169	•	123	162	135	842
Oct.	149	99	172	157	183	173	85	•	1426	•	170	129	144	173	407	•	•	130	160	136	842
Nov.	151	99	174	157	•	173	84	•	1441	•	170	129	143	•	408	•	178	135	160	136	842
Dec.	151	100	175	157	•	173	85	—	1452	515	170	129	143	•	408	—	•	137	159	138	842
1929 Jan.	—	100	—	—	—	174	—	•	1450	•	170-175	—	—	176	—	•	•	—	160	135	—
TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1928 Jan	126	14	208	156	189	•	52	•	1411	•	151	75	172	127	400	•	•	53	•	174	261
Feb.	126	14	209	156	•	•	52	•	1411	•	151	75	172	•	400	•	188	53	•	174	261
March	126	14	209	156	•	•	52	•	1411	275	151	75	172	•	400	179	•	53	199	174	261
April	126	14	209	156	193	•	52	•	1411	•	151	75	172	127	400	•	•	56	•	174	261
May	126	14	209	156	•	•	52	•	1411	•	151	80	172	•	400	•	189	56	•	177	261
June	126	14	209	156	•	•	52	158	1430	275	151	80	172	•	400	179	•	56	199	177	261
July	126	14	210	156	193	•	52	•	1430	•	151	80	172	128	401	•	•	58	•	177	278
Aug.	126	14	210	156	•	•	52	•	1430	•	151	85	172	•	401	•	190	58	•	177	278
Sept.	126	14	210	156	•	•	52	•	1430	300	151	85	172	•	401	179	•	58	199	177	278
Oct.	126	14	211	156	193	•	52	•	1430	•	150	85	172	127	408	•	•	58	•	177	278
Nov.	126	15	212	156	•	•	52	•	1430	•	152	86	172	•	408	•	190	58	•	177	278
Dec.	126	15	211	—	•	•	52	—	1430	300	152	—	172	•	408	—	•	58	199	177	276
1929 Jan.	—	15	—	—	—	•	—	•	1430	•	152	—	—	127	—	•	•	—	•	177	—

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1913 = 100. The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Recent Labour Legislation

The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French, and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used.[1] Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1928

TERRITORY UNDER THE CONTROL OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Saar Territory

Verordnung zur Veröffentlichung des zwischen der Regierungskommission des Saargebietes und der französischen Regierung am 12. November 1928 zu Paris getätigten Abkommens, betreffend Gewährung steuerlicher Erleichterungen in Frankreich und im Saargebiete, hinsichtlich der Sozialabzüge und Herabsetzung der Steuergrundlage. Nr. 694. Vom 18. Dezember 1928. (Amtsblatt, 1928, No. 50, p. 911.)

MANDATED TERRITORY

New Guinea

An Ordinance to amend the Natives Contracts Protection Ordinance, 1921-1927. No. 25 of 1928. Dated 5 November 1928. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1928, No. 121, p. 3073.)

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[1] *List of abbreviations*: A. N. = Amtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für Soziale Verwaltung; B. G. Bl. = Bundesgesetzblatt; B. l. R. S. = Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales; B. M. T. = Bulletin du Ministère du Travail; B. O. M. T. = Boletín Oficial del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria; C. S. R. = Commonwealth Statutory Rules; D. R. A. = Deutscher Reichsanzeiger; Drj. Vest. = Drjaven Vestnik; E. K. N. = Ergatiké kai Koinoniké Nomothesia (parartéma B') (published by the Ministry of National Economy); Eph. Kyb. = Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Teuchos proton); G. U. = Gazzetta Ufficiale; I. N. K. T. = Izvestia Narodnogo Komissariata Trooda; J. O. = Journal Officiel; Lik. = Likumu un Ministru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums; R. Arb. Bl. = Reichsarbeitsblatt; R. d. T. = Revue du Travail; R. G. Bl. = Reichsgesetzblatt; S. R. & O. = Statutory Rules and Orders; Sb. z. a n. = Sbirka zâkonu a narizeni (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslovak Republic); L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office

An Ordinance to amend the Native Labour Ordinance, 1922-1927. No. 28 of 1928. Dated 5 November 1928. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1928, No. 121, p. 3075.)

INTERNATIONAL

Saar Territory-France

Convention concernant les réductions et dégrèvements en France et en Sarre pour charges de famille. Du 12 novembre 1928.

Abkommen betreffend die Gewährung von Erleichterungen auf steuerlichem Gebiete in Frankreich und im Saargebiet, hinsichtlich der Sozialbezüge und Herabsetzung der Steuergrundlage. Vom 12. November 1928. (Amtsblatt, 1928, No. 50, p. 911.)

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth

Amendments of Transport Workers Regulations. (Regulations 2, 7, 9, 10, and 15 amended ; 5A, 8A, and Form D added.) Dated 30 October 1928. (C.S.R., 1928, No. 111.)

Territory for the Seat of Government

An Ordinance relating to public health. No. 21 of 1928. Dated 5 November 1928. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1928, No. 121, p. 3044.)

Territory of Central Australia

An Ordinance to amend the Aboriginals Ordinance, 1918-1927, as amended by the Aboriginals Ordinance, 1928. No. 21 of 1928. Dated 5 November 1928. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1928, No. 121, p. 3049.)

An Ordinance to provide for the registration of nurses and midwives. Dated 5 November 1928. No. 22 of 1928. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1928, No. 121, p. 3050.)

Northern Territory

An Ordinance to amend the Aboriginals Ordinance, 1918-1927, as amended by the Aboriginals Ordinance, 1928. No. 23 of 1928. Dated 5 November 1928. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1928, No. 121, p. 3062.)

An Ordinance to provide for the registration of nurses and midwives. No. 24 of 1928. Dated 5 November 1928. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1928, No. 121, p. 3063.)

New South Wales

Regulations under the Industrial Arbitration Act, 1912, Industrial Arbitration (Amendment) Act, 1926, and Industrial Arbitration (Amendment) Act, 1927. Dated 21 September 1928. (N.S.W. Industrial Gazette, 1928, Vol. XXXIV, No. 3, p. 308.)

Queensland

An Act to make provision for the training, qualification, and registration of nurses and masseurs ; and for other purposes. No. 10. Assented to 27 October 1928. (Queensland Government Gazette, 7 November 1928, No. 111, p. 1521.)

An Act to further amend " The Police Acts Amendment Act of 1921 " (as amended by " The Police Acts Amendment Act of 1924 ") in certain particulars. No. 15. Assented to 30 October 1928. (Queensland Government Gazette, 7 November 1928, No. 116, p. 1559.)

An Act to amend " The Coal Mining Act of 1925 " in certain particulars. No. 18. Assented to 14 November 1928. (Queensland Government Gazette, 21 November 1928, No. 133, p. 1707.)

An Act to amend " The State Children Acts, 1911 to 1924, " in certain particulars, and to further amend " The Criminal Code ". No. 19. Assented to 14 November 1928. (Queensland Government Gazette, 21 November 1928, No. 134, p. 1713.)

An Act to amend "The Aboriginals Protection and Restriction of the Sale of Opium Act, 1897," in certain particulars. No. 20. Assented to 14 November 1928. (Queensland Government Gazette, 21 November 1928, No. 135, p. 1717.)

An Act to provide for the registration and to regulate the practice of architects; and for other incidental purposes. No. 21. Assented to 14 November 1928. (Queensland Government Gazette, 21 November 1928, No. 136, p. 1719.)

An Act to amend the laws relating to harbour boards in certain particulars. No. 22. Assented to 14 November 1928. (Queensland Government Gazette, 21 November 1928, No. 137, p. 1733.)

Order in Council to provide that the provisions of section 5A of the Unemployed Workers Insurance Acts, 1922 to 1927, shall, from and after the twenty-second day of October 1928, apply in respect of the employers of such workers as are engaged throughout the State of Queensland in the calling of waterside workers. Dated 1 November 1928. (Queensland Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. CXXXI, No. 110, p. 1496.)

AUSTRIA

Bundesgesetz vom 6. Dezember 1928, womit das Gesetz vom 25. April 1919, St.G.Bl. Nr. 245 (Invalidenentschädigungsgesetz), in der Fassung des Gesetzes vom 17. Februar 1927, B.G.Bl. Nr. 66, ergänzt wird (X. Novelle zum Invalidenentschädigungsgesetze). (B.G.Bl., 1928, 89. Stück, No. 318, p. 2077.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung im Einvernehmen mit den beteiligten Bundesministern vom 10. November 1928 über die Bewertung der Sachbezüge für Zwecke der Landarbeiterversicherung. (B.G.Bl., 1928, 81. Stück, No. 298, p. 1963.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung im Einvernehmen mit den beteiligten Bundesministern vom 22. November 1928, betreffend die Durchführung der Altersfürsorge nach dem Landarbeiterversicherungsgesetze. (B.G.Bl., 1928, 85. Stück, No. 307, p. 2044.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung vom 23. November 1928, betreffend die Abänderung der III. Durchführungsverordnung zum Angestelltenversicherungsgesetz. (B.G.Bl., 1928, 86. Stück, No. 310, p. 2047.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung im Einvernehmen mit den beteiligten Bundesministern vom 4. Dezember 1928 über die Einrichtung und Führung von Lohnlisten für Zwecke der Landarbeiterversicherung. (B.G.Bl., 1928, 90. Stück, No. 324, p. 2083.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung im Einvernehmen mit dem Bundesminister für Land- und Forstwirtschaft vom 6. Dezember 1928, betreffend die Durchführung der Landarbeiterversicherung hinsichtlich der bei mehreren Arbeitgebern und der unständig Beschäftigten. (B.G.Bl., 1928, 90. Stück, No. 326, p. 2084.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung vom 10. Dezember 1928, betreffend die Sicherstellung der Beitragszahlung nach dem Angestelltenversicherungsgesetz (V. Durchführungsverordnung zum Angestelltenversicherungsgesetz). (B.G.Bl., 1928, 91. Stück, No. 329, p. 2091.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung vom 27. Dezember 1928, betreffend Abänderung der Bestimmung von Lohnklassen für die Krankenversicherung der in einem Lehrverhältnis stehenden Personen und der Hausgehilfen. (B.G.Bl., 1928, 99. Stück, No. 365, p. 2347.)

Salzburg

Verordnung vom 31. Juli 1928: Durchführung des Gesetzes über die Errichtung von Herbergen für wandernde Arbeitsuchende im Lande Salzburg. Nr. 124. (A. N., 1928, No. 10, p. 364.)

BASUTOLAND

Proclamation to consolidate and amend the law with regard to trading in Basutoland and to provide for the payment of licence fees in connection therewith.

No. 28 of 1928. Dated 20 November 1928. (Official Gazette of the High Commissioner for South Africa, 1928, Vol. CIV, No. 1424, p. 15.)

BELGIUM

Loi approuvant l'accord relatif aux travailleurs frontaliers et saisonniers, conclu le 4 juillet 1928, entre la Belgique et la France. Du 10 novembre 1928. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 356, p. 5349.)

Loi portant suppression de la formalité du certificat de vie en matière de liquidation des pensions. Du 24 novembre 1928. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 336, p. 5094.)

* Arrêté royal du 25 octobre 1928, concernant : Loi du 14 juin 1921 instituant la journée de huit heures et la semaine de quarante-huit heures. — Industries ou branches d'industries dans lesquelles le temps nécessaire à l'exécution du travail ne peut être, en raison de sa nature, déterminé d'une manière précise ou dans lesquelles les matières mises en œuvre sont susceptibles d'altération très rapide. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 303-304, p. 4515.)

Arrêté royal du 30 octobre 1928 concernant : Exécution des articles 3 et 4 de la loi du 11 octobre 1919 relatifs à la détermination des "habitations à bon marché" et des "personnes peu aisées". — Nouveau régime. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 321, p. 4695.)

Arrêté royal du 8 décembre 1928 : Exécution des lois sur les pensions de vieillesse. Modification de l'article 15 de l'arrêté royal du 17 janvier 1928 déterminant le moment à partir duquel la demande de pension, de majoration de rente de vieillesse ou d'allocation gratuite de vieillesse peut être faite chez le receveur des contributions. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 350, p. 5302.)

BULGARIA

Act to amend certain sections of the Act respecting the establishment by co-operative societies of national elementary schools, promulgated in Drj. Vest., No. 92, of 26 July 1924. Ukase No. 166. Dated 16 October 1928. (Drj. Vest., 1928, No. 174, p. 2.)

CUBA

* Decreto No. 1.521. — 4 de septiembre de 1928. [Reglamentación de la ley que prohibe el trabajo nocturno en las panaderias, fondas, etc.] (Gaceta Oficial de Cuba, 1928, No. 61, p. 4775.)

[Decree No. 1521 (to issue regulations under the Act to prohibit night work in bakeries, hotels, etc.). Dated 4 September 1928.]

Resolución.— 17 de septiembre de 1928. [Cierre de los establecimientos comerciales.] (Gaceta Oficial de Cuba, 1928, No. 69, p. 5418.)

[Order (respecting the closing hour for commercial establishments). Dated 17 September 1928.]

Resolución.— 15 de Octubre de 1928. [Cierre de los establecimientos comerciales.] (Gaceta Oficial de Cuba, 1928, No. 92, p. 7219.)

[Order (respecting the closing hour for commercial establishments). Dated 15 October 1928.]

CYPRUS

Order in Council.— No. 1233 under the Shop Hours Law, 1927 : Shop Hours Order. Dated 26 May 1928. No. 351. (Cyprus Gazette (Extraordinary), 1928, No. 1922, p. 401.)

Order in Council.— No. 1240 under the Protection of Female Domestic Servants Law, 1928 : Protection of Female Domestic Servants Regulations, 1928. No. 457. Assented to 13 July 1928. (Cyprus Gazette, 1928, No. 1933, p. 485.)

DANZIG (FREE CITY OF)

Gesetz über die Dienstbezüge der unmittelbaren Staatsbeamten (Danziger Besoldungsgesetz). Vom 19. Oktober 1928. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1928, No. 32, p. 329.)

Gesetz über Leistungen in der Invalidenversicherung. Vom 26. Oktober 1928. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1928, No. 33, p. 361.)

Verordnung zur Ausführung des Gesetzes betr. Errichtung von Arbeitnehmer-Ausschüssen vom 31. August 1928 (Gesetzblatt S. 173). Vom 5. Oktober 1928. Nr. 275. (Staatsanzeiger für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1928, No. 76, p. 299.)

Verordnung zur Durchführung des Gesetzes über Leistungen in der Invalidenversicherung. Vom 26. Oktober 1928. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1928, No. 33, p. 362.)

FINLAND

Asetus suomalaisten kauppa-alusten kansi- ja konepäällystön pätevyyskirjoista. 15 päivänä kesäkuuta 1928. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1928, No. 199, p. 610.)

Förordning angaende behörighetsbrev för däcks- och maskinbefäl a finska handelsfartyg. Den 15 juni 1928. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1928, No. 199, p. 610.)

[Order respecting certificates of competency for deck and engine-room officers on board Finnish merchant vessels. Dated 15 June 1928.]

Asetus linjaluotsein pätevyysehdoista. 15 päivänä kesäkuuta 1928. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1928, No. 200, p. 615.)

Förordning angaende kompetensvillkor för linjelots. Den 15 juni 1928. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1928, No. 200, p. 615.)

[Order respecting certificates of competency for regular pilots. Dated 15 June 1928.]

FRANCE

Décret fixant les conditions des élections des représentants du personnel et des représentants des exploitants à la caisse autonome mutuelle des retraites des agents des chemins de fer secondaires, des chemins de fer d'intérêt local et des tramways. Du 30 novembre 1928. (J.O., 1928, No. 286, p. 12672 ; errata : No. 287, p. 12704.)

Décret fixant le statut disciplinaire du personnel des établissements nationaux. Du 7 décembre 1928. (J.O., 1928, No. 293, p. 12934.)

Décret complétant le décret du 19 juin 1928 relatif à l'adaptation des dispositions des articles 63 et 65 à 69 de la loi de finances du 27 décembre 1927 au régime local des pensions d'Alsace et de Lorraine. Du 7 décembre 1928. (J.O., 1928, No. 294, p. 12950.)

Décret concernant les tarifs de la caisse nationale d'assurances en cas de décès. Du 8 décembre 1928. (J.O., 1928, No. 296, p. 13026.)

FRENCH COLONIES

Ivory Coast

Arrêté fixant le mode et le taux de rétribution des heures supplémentaires de travail fourni par les agents du Service du Wharf [de Grand-Bassam]. Du 4 mai 1928. No. 664. (J.O. de la Côte d'Ivoire, 1928, No. 9, p. 287.)

New Caledonia

Arrêté No. 934 fixant la réglementation et la rémunération des heures supplémentaires de travail pour les divers services de la Colonie autres que celui des Postes et Télégraphes. Du 24 août 1928. (J.O. de la Nouvelle-Calédonie et dépendances, 1928, No. 3459, p. 813.)

Arrêté No. 936 fixant la réglementation et la rémunération des heures supplémentaires de travail pour le Service de Postes et Télégraphes. Du 24 août 1928. (J.O. de la Nouvelle-Calédonie et dépendances, 1928, No. 3459, p. 813.)

GERMANY

Verordnung über Kurzarbeiterunterstützung. Vom 30. Oktober 1928. (R.Arb. Bl., 1928, No. 31, p. I 258.)

Verordnung über die Prüfung der Bedürftigkeit bei der Krisenunterstützung für Arbeitslose. Vom 6. November 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1928, No. 39, p. 385.)

Verordnung über die Ausdehnung des Bezirkes des Fachausschusses für die Papier- und Kartonnagen-Industrie, Sitz Stuttgart. Vom 8. November 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1928, No. 40, p. 398.)

Verordnung über Krankenbehandlung und Berufsfürsorge in der Unfallversicherung. Vom 14. November 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1928, No. 40, p. 387.)

Verordnung über Geschäftsberichte der Versicherungsämter und Oberversicherungsämter. Vom 17. November 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1928, No. 40, p. 391.)

Verordnung zur Aenderung der Verordnung über die Bildung von Betriebsvertretungen nach dem Betriebsrätegesetz im Bereiche der Reichs-Post- und Telegraphenverwaltung vom 18. Januar 1923. Vom 7. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1928, No. 43, p. 404.)

Verordnung über Aenderung der Ausführungsbestimmungen zur Verordnung über Aerzte und Krankenkassen. Vom 18. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1928, No. 44, p. 410.)

Prussia

Verordnung zur Abänderung der Verordnung zur Ausführung des § 61 des Betriebsrätegesetzes vom 4. Februar 1920 (Reichs-Gesetzbl. S. 147) bei den dem Minister für Handel und Gewerbe unterstellten Behörden, Schulen und Anstalten vom 21. Juli 1926 (Gesetzsamml. S. 222). Vom 10. Dezember 1928. (Preussische Gesetzsammlung, 1928, No. 37, p. 213.)

GREAT BRITAIN

An Act to provide that, for the purpose of the power of the Treasury to make advances to the Unemployment Fund during the period ending on the thirty-first day of December, one thousand nine hundred and thirty, the total amount of the advances which may be outstanding during the deficiency period shall be increased to forty million pounds. Dated 28 November 1928. (19 Geo. V, ch. 1.)

* The Horizontal Milling Machines Regulations, 1928, dated 10 July 1928, made by the Secretary of State under section 79 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901 (1 Edw. VII, ch. 22). (S.R. & O., 1928, No. 548.)

The National Health Insurance and Contributory Pensions (Voluntary Contributors) Amendment Regulations, 1928, dated 30 July 1928, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee, the Minister of Health and the Scottish Board of Health, acting jointly and in conjunction with the Treasury, under sub-sections (2) and (4) of section 13 of the Widows', Orphans' and Old-Age Contributory Pensions Act, 1925 (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 70). (S.R. & O., 1928, No. 677.)

The Contributory Pensions (Claims and Payment) Amendment Regulations, 1928, dated 1 August 1928, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee, the Minister of Health and the Scottish Board of Health, in conjunction with the Treasury and the Postmaster-General, under the Widows', Orphans' and Old-Age Contributory Pensions Act, 1925 (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 70). (S.R. & O., 1928, No. 683.)

The Trade Boards (Hat, Cap and Millinery Trade, England and Wales) (Constitution and Proceedings) Regulations, 1928, dated 15 October 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under section 11 of the Trade Boards Act, 1909 (9 Edw. VII, ch. 22). (S.R. & O., 1928, No. 678.)

Order M.D.(14), dated 20 November 1928, confirming general minimum time rates and overtime rates for male and female workers employed in those branches of the trade included by the Trade Boards (Milk Distributive Trade, England and Wales) (Constitution and Proceedings) Regulations, 1928, who were not included by the Trade Boards (Milk Distributive Trade, England and Wales) (Constitution and Proceedings) Regulations, 1926, and specifying 26 November 1928 as the date from which such minimum rates should become effective. (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1928, Vol. XXXVI, No. 12, p. 465.)

The National Health Insurance (Medical Benefit) Consolidated Regulations, 1928, dated 26 November 1928, made by the Minister of Health under the National Health Insurance Act, 1924 (14 & 15 Geo. V, ch. 38). (S.R. & O., 1928, No. 965.)

The Unemployment Insurance (Associations) Regulations, 1928, dated 3 December 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S.R. & O., 1928, No. 961.)

The Coal Mines General Regulations (Rescue), 1928, 10 December 1928, made by the Board of Trade under sections 85 and 86 of the Coal Mines Act, 1911 (1 & 2 Geo. V, ch. 50). (S.R. & O., 1928, No. 971.)

Scotland

Order M.D.S.(16), dated 20 November 1928, confirming general minimum time rates and overtime rates for male and female workers employed in those branches of the trade included by the Trade Boards (Milk Distributive Trade, Scotland) (Constitution and Proceedings) Regulations, 1928, who were not included by the Trade Boards (Milk Distributive Trade, Scotland) (Constitution and Proceedings) Regulations, 1926, and specifying 26 November as the date from which such minimum rates should become effective. (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1928, Vol. XXXVI, No. 12, p. 465.)

GREECE

Act to ratify the Legislative Decree of 12 December 1927, to ratify and amend the Legislative Decree of 10 September 1926, to amend and supplement the provisions in force respecting private commercial education and to add certain provisions respecting commercial education in general. Dated 17 July 1928. (Eph. Kyb., 1928, I, No. 153, p. 1205.)

INDIA

India : Passage (Subordinate) Rules : Amendment, made 22 August 1928, by the Secretary of State for India in Council under section 96B (2) of the Government of India Act. (S.R. & O., 1928, No. 686.)

India : Fundamental Rules : Amendment, made 5 September 1928, by the Secretary of State for India in Council under section 96B (2) of the Government of India Act. (S.R. & O., 1928, No. 682.)

[Calculation of leave in case of re-employment of retired employees.]

India : Superior Civil Services (Revision of Pay, Passage and Pension) Rules : Amendment, made 19 September 1928, by the Secretary of State for India in Council under section 96B (2) and (3) of the Government of India Act. (S.R. & O., 1928, No. 684.)

India : Superior Civil Services (Revision of Pay, Passage and Pension) Rules : Amendment, made 3 October 1928, by the Secretary of State for India in Council under section 96B (2) of the Government of India Act. (S.R. & O., 1928, No. 697.)

ITALY

R. decreto 4 novembre 1928, n. 2325. Disposizioni per l'unificazione legislativa nei territori annessi al Regno. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2785.) (G.U., 1928 No. 257, p. 5374.)

[Royal Decree No. 2325, to issue provisions respecting the rendering uniform of the legislation in the territories annexed to Italy. Dated 4 November 1928.]

LATVIA

Pargrozijumi un papildinajumi noteikumos par kugniecibas nelaimes gadijumu izmeklesanu. 1928. g. 30. oktobri. (Lik., 1928, 24. burtnica, No. 199, p. 618.)

[Amendments and supplements to the Order respecting enquiries into shipping casualties. Dated 30 October 1928.]

* Noteikumi par jurnickiem. 1928. g. 30. oktobri. (Lik., 1928, 25. burtnica, No. 212, p. 624.)

[Order respecting seamen. Dated 30 October 1928.]

Noteikumi par tirdzniecibas kugu aplukosanu. 1928. g. 30. oktobri. (Lik. 1928, 25. burtnica, No. 213, p. 635.)

[Order respecting the inspection of merchant vessels. Dated 30 October 1928.]

LITHUANIA

Zemes tvarkymo istatymo pakeitimas. 1928 m. rugsejo men. 1 dienos. Nr. 1879. (Vyriausybes Zinios, 1928, No. 287, p. 11.)

[Amendment of the Agrarian Reform Act, No. 1879. Dated 1 September 1928.]

LUXEMBURG

Arrêté du 9 novembre 1928, réglant l'organisation de la commission supérieure des maladies professionnelles.

Beschluss vom 9. November 1928, betreffend die Organisation der Höheren Kommission für die Berufskrankheiten. (Mémorial, 1928, No. 52, p. 849.)

Arrêté du 4 décembre 1928, concernant l'élection des délégués-ouvriers en matière d'assurance-accidents industrielle.

Beschluss vom 4. Dezember 1928, betreffend die Wahl der Arbeiter-Vertreter in Sachen der Unfallversicherung. (Mémorial, 1928, No. 55, p. 866.)

NEW ZEALAND

Order in Council issuing Rules for life-saving appliances under section 197 of the Shipping and Seamen Act, 1908. Assented to 9 November 1928. (New Zealand, Gazette, 1928, No. 85, p. 3266.)

Amended Regulations under the Mining Act, 1926. Dated 13 November 1928. (New Zealand Gazette, 1928, No. 86, p. 3343.)

NORWAY

Kongelig resolusjon i henhold til §§ 1 og 41 i lov om statskontroll med skibes sjödyktighet av 9 juni 1903 med tilleggslover. Den 9 november 1928. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1928, No. 42, p. 697.)

[Royal Resolution under sections 1 and 41 of the Act of 9 June 1903, respecting State supervision of the seaworthiness of vessels, and the Acts to amend it. Dated 9 November 1928.]

POLAND

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej, wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrem Przemyslu i Handlu i Ministrem Rolnictwa z dnia 26 wrzesnia 1926 r. w sprawie zmiany podzialu terytorjalnego Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej na okregi i obwody inspekcji Pracy. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 89, poz. 782, p. 1989.)

[Order of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare in agreement with the Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Minister of Agriculture, to alter the division of the territory of Poland into labour inspection districts and local areas Dated 26 September 1928.]

PORTUGAL

Decreto no. 15:897 — Declarando em vigor nos territorios sob a administração das Companhias de Moçambique e do Niassa o diplôma legislativo colonial no. 37, do Govêrno Geral da Colonia de Moçambique, que aprova o regulamento dos tribunais privativos indigenas. 24 de Agosto de 1928. (Boletim Oficial da Moçambique, 1928, No. 39, p. 364.)

[Decree No. 15897, to bring into operation, in the territories under the control of the Mozambique and Nyasa Companies, Legislative Decree No. 37 of the Governor-General of Mozambique to approve the regulations for special native courts. Dated 24 August 1928.]

Decreto no. 16:055 — Promulga varias disposições sôbre a construcção e venda de casas economicas. 12 de Outubro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 243, p. 2166; errata: No. 247, p. 2198.)

[Decree No. 16055, to issue various provisions respecting the erection and sale of cheap dwellings. Dated 12 October 1928.]

Decreto no. 16:072 — Declara não ficar sujeita a qualquer regime especial a concessão de passaportes a emigrantes portugueses para a Republica de Cuba. 26 de Outubro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 247, p. 2196.)

[Decree No. 16072, to proclaim that the issue of passports to Portuguese emigrants to Cuba is not subject to any special restrictions. Dated 26 October 1928.]

Portaria no. 5:689 — Regulariza a emigração para a América do Norte. 31 de Outubro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 252, p. 2264.)

[Order No. 5689, to issue regulations concerning emigration to the United States of America. Dated 31 October 1928.]

Decreto no. 16:102 — Altera o artigo 16º do decreto no. 10:782, que atribui as percentagens de 10 e 20 por cento as autoridades e agentes policiais que acusem transgressões pelo regulamento do horario do trabalho, revertendo essa percentagem a favor da assistencia publica local e o restante constituira receita do Estado. 31 de Outubro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 254, p. 2273.)

[Decree No. 16102, to amend section 16 of Decree No. 10782 (of 20 May 1925), which assigns to the police authorities and officers 10-20 per cent. of the fines imposed for the contraventions of the regulations respecting hours of work which they report, and to provide that the said percentage shall accrue to the local poor relief fund and the remainder shall be deemed to be State revenue. Dated 31 October 1928.]

Decreto no. 16:108 — Reorganiza o Conselho Superior das Colonias. 5 de Novembre de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 255, p. 2297.)

[Decree No. 16108, to reorganise the Superior Council for the Colonies. Dated 5 November 1928.]

Portaria no. 5:716 — Autoriza os departamentos maritimos e capitanias dos portos a inscreverem como telegrafistas nos navios da marinha mercante os individuos munidos de cartas de telegrafistas, provisorias e por viagem, passadas pela Direcção dos Serviços de Electricidade e Comunicações. 8 de Novembro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 258, p. 2308.)

[Order No. 5716 of the Ministry of Marine, to authorise shipping offices and harbour authorities to sign on as wireless operators on board vessels belonging to the mercantile marine any persons who hold wireless operators' cards issued provisionally for a single voyage by the Directorate of the Electricity and Communications Services. Dated 8 November 1928.]

Decreto no. 16:135 — Regula as lotações das tripulações dos navios da marinha mercante nacional. 8 de Novembro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 262, p. 2332 ; errata : No. 266, p. 2360 ; No. 271, p. 2385.)

[Decree No. 16135, to fix the strength of the crews of vessels in the mercantile marine. Dated 8 November 1928.]

PORTUGUESE COLONIES

Portuguese Guinea

Diploma legislativo no. 417, promulgando a nova organização administrativa da colonia. 20 de Julho de 1928. (Boletim Oficial da Colonia da Guiné, 1928, No. 30, p. 408.)

[Legislative Decree No. 417, to provide for the administrative reorganisation of the Colony. Dated 20 July 1928.]

Macao

Diploma legislativo no. 26, regulando a construcção e arrendamento de casas aos funcionarios. 16 de Agosto de 1928. (Boletim Oficial da Colonia de Macau, 1928, No. 33, p. 598.)

[Order No. 26, respecting the construction and letting of dwellings for Government employees. Dated 16 August 1928.]

Mozambique

Diploma Legislativo da Colonia no. 37. Aprova o regulamento dos tribunais privativos indigenas que faz parte integrante dêste diploma. 12 de Novembro de 1927. (Boletim da Companhia de Moçambique, 1928, No. 19, p. 291.)

[Legislative Decree No. 37, to approve the regulations for special native courts. Dated 12 November 1927.]

SARAWAK

Notification No. 633. — General Order No. 19 (Subordinate Service Bonus Schem Regulations). Dated 7 November 1928. (Sarawak Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. XXI, No. DVIII, p. 295.)

SPAIN

Real orden haciendo las aclaraciones que se expresan relativas al importe de las multas exigidas a las Empresas navieras. 5 de Noviembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 329, p. 1243.)

[Royal Order respecting the amount of fines imposed on shipping undertakings (for offences against the emigration laws). Dated 5 November 1928.]

SWITZERLAND

Loi fédérale sur la juridiction administrative et disciplinaire. Du 11 juin 1928. (Recueil des lois fédérales, 1928, No. 29, p. 837.)

Bundesgesetz über die eidgenössische Verwaltungs- und Disziplinarrechtspflege. Vom 11. Juni 1928. (Eidgenössische Gesetzsammlung, 1928, No. 29, p. 779.)

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

An Ordinance to amend the Prevention of Accidents Ordinance. No. 30 of 1928. Assented to 10 December 1928.

Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

Permanent Court of International Justice. *Jurisdiction of the Danzig Courts.* (*Actions by certain railway officials against the Polish Administration.*) Acts and Documents relating to Judgments and Advisory Opinions Given by the Court. No. 14-1. Thirteenth Session. Documents relating to Advisory Opinion No. 15. Leyden, A. W. Sijthoff, 1928. 592 pp.

International Conference on Cancer. *Report of the International Conference on Cancer, London, 17-20 July 1928, held under the auspices of the British Empire Cancer Campaign.* Bristol, John Wright and Sons, 1928. XXI + 588 pp.

Special mention may be made of the section of the report devoted to occupational cancer, which contains a number of general studies on the subject (J. C. BRIDGE and S. A. HENRY, W. J. O'DONOVAN, T. H. C. STEVENSON, L. CAROZZI, E. L. COLLIS, and A. H. SOUTHAM) and special studies on Schneeburg lung cancer (O. ROSTOSKI and G. SCHMORL), cancers in mineral oil refineries (A. SCOTT), mule spinners' cancer (A. H. SOUTHAM), pitch cancer (A. F. SLADDEN and W. M. de VRIES), and cancer of the scrotum (E. L. KENNAWAY).

Internationale Vereinigung der Schuh- und Lederindustrie-Arbeiter. *Protokoll über die Verhandlungen des Vierten Kongresses abgehalten in London 17-19 August 1927.* 77 pp.

International Federation for Housing and Town Planning. *International Housing and Town Planning Congress, Paris 1928.* Part III. *Report.* London. 236 pp.

The first two volumes of this report, to which attention was drawn in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVIII, No. 6, December 1928, p. 826, contained the documents submitted to the Congress. The third volume gives the reports of the plenary sittings and of the meetings of the committees. The speeches and discussions, together with the general reports presented at the last sitting, are given in the three official languages used (English, French and German) and are followed by a summary or a full translation in the other two.

12th International Tobacco Workers' Congress. *Report.* Paris, 1928, 176 pp.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

AUSTRALIA

Dominions Office. *Report of the Committee on Rural Credits in Australia, 27 April 1927.* Reprinted from the original as printed and published by His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1928. Melbourne. 14 pp.

QUEENSLAND

Department of Mines. *Annual Report of the Under-Secretary of State for Mines. Including the Reports of the Wardens, Inspectors of Mines, Government Geologists, and other Officers for the Year 1927.* Brisbane, 1928. IV + 138 pp.

TASMANIA

Mines Department. *Report of the Director of Mines for Year ending 31 December 1927.* Hobart, 1928. 38 pp.

AUSTRIA

Bundesamt für Statistik. *Statistisches Handbuch für die Republik Oesterreich. IX. Jahrgang.* Vienna, 1928. x + 208 pp.

Bundesministerium für soziale Verwaltung. *Die Amtstätigkeit der Gewerbe-Inspektorate im Jahre 1927.* Vienna, 1928. LXXIV + 178 pp.

BELGIUM

Commission pour l'Etude du problème de la main-d'œuvre au Congo Belge (1924-1925). Comité consultatif de la main-d'œuvre (1928). *Le problème de la main-d'œuvre au Congo belge. Rapports.* Brussels, 1928. 97 pp.

This brochure contains the reports furnished by the two committees set up in Belgium, at a three years' interval, to examine the increasingly acute problem of the labour supply in the Belgian Congo.

The report of the Committee appointed in 1924 first attempts an estimate of the labour resources and requirements of the colony, and concludes that, in the colony as a whole, the available labour supply should prove sufficient to satisfy the requirements of existing undertakings until 1930, on the condition, however, that the economic development of the colony is carried out circumspectly, in accordance with a programme drawn up for each district by the Government in collaboration with the undertakings interested. The report, moreover, indicates the proportion of the labour supply which, it would appear, may be drawn from the usual sources to be allocated to the requirements of colonisation without affecting the equilibrium of the native groups.

The report of the 1928 Committee is principally devoted to defining the "economic zones" outlined in the preceding report. The delimitation of these zones for the three provinces of Congo-Kasai, Equateur and Katanga was studied by sub-committees who defined those portions of the territories, already saturated, where it would seem advisable to prohibit further concessions of land and recruiting. In order to complete the constitution of these economic zones, the Committee has drawn up a questionnaire to be sent not only to employers, but also to organisations for assistance and missions, which is designed to collect accurate information on "native elements" — in other words, on possible labour resources — on the one hand, and on the "employer element", or labour requirements, on the other. The report also examines the question of recruitment and lays down the following principles : recruitment must only be carried out with due regard to the liberty of the native ; the intervention of the administrative authorities, however, and an active propaganda campaign are indispensable to induce the natives to collaborate with the Europeans.

The publication of this brochure should help to enlighten the general public on the present state of the labour problem in the Belgian Congo and on the policy of the Belgian Government in regard to this delicate and complicated question.

BULGARIA

Direction générale de la Statistique. *Statistique de l'enseignement dans le Royaume de Bulgarie. Année scolaire 1923-1924.* Sofia, 1928. VIII + 261 pp.

Statistics of education in Bulgaria for 1923-1924. Vocational education is dealt with in Part III.

CANADA

Department of Agriculture. Dominion Experimental Farms. *Report of the Director for the Year ending 31 March 1928.* Ottawa, 1928. 118 pp.

DENMARK

Sundhetsstyrelsen. *Medicinalberetning for den Danske Stat for aaret 1926.* By H. J. HANSEN. Copenhagen, 1928. VI + 185 pp.

Statistical report of the Danish Ministry of Health for 1926.

ESTONIA

Riigi Statistika Keskbüroo. *Eesti Pollumajandus. Statistiline Aastaraamat 1927.* VI. *Annuaire de la Statistique agricole, 1927.* Tallinn, 1928. VIII + 207 pp.

Töö- ja Hoolekandeministeerium. Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale. *Töökaitse Eestis 1927. a. Tööinspektorite 1927. a. Aruannete Kokkuvott. La protection du travail en Estonie en 1927. Résumé des rapports des inspecteurs du travail pour l'année 1927.* Tallinn, 1928. 45 pp.

FRANCE

Office de Législation étrangère et de Droit international. *Code civil des Etats-Unis du Brésil. Loi No. 3071 du 1er janvier 1916 avec les modifications résultant de la loi No. 3725 du 15 janvier 1919.* Traduit et annoté par P. Goulé, C. Daguin et G. d'Ardenne de Tizac. Paris, 1928. L + 480 pp.

Rapport annuel adressé par le Gouvernement français au Conseil de la Société des Nations, conformément à l'article 22 du Pacte, sur l'administration sous mandat du territoire du Togo pour l'année 1927. Paris, 1928. 198 pp.

GERMANY

Reichsversicherungsamt. *Gesundheitsfürsorge in der Invalidenversicherung 1927. Mit bildlichen Darstellungen.* Amtliche Nachrichten für Reichsversicherung, Jahrgang 1928, Nr. 11. Sonderausgabe des Reichsarbeitsblattes. Textliche Beilage. Berlin, 1928. 96 pp.

HESSE

Zentralstelle für die Landesstatistik. *Die Landwirtschaft im Volkstaat Hessen dargestellt besonders nach den Ergebnissen der landwirtschaftlichen Betriebszählung vom 16. Juni 1925.* Darmstadt, 1928. 95 pp. 1.50 marks.

This book contains statistics relating to agriculture in Hesse. The information given on the section of the population occupied in agriculture is interesting. For about forty years the number of farms has remained constant; the number of agricultural workers has steadily decreased. Before the war the members of farmers' families assisting on farms were also steadily decreasing in number; but the latest census, taken in 1925, shows an increase in this group so great when compared with the 1907 census that at present the total amount of labour employed in agriculture is higher than in 1907. This interesting fact is also true for most other German States.

GREAT BRITAIN

Home Office. *Fencing and Other Safety Precautions for Wood-Working Machinery.* Second Edition. Safety Pamphlet No. 8. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 79 pp. 1s.

—— *Fourth Report on the Work of the Children's Branch, November 1928.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. v + 125 pp. 1s.

Ministry of Labour. *League of Nations. International Labour Conference, Eleventh Session, Geneva, 30 May-16 June 1928. Report by the British Government Delegates to the Minister of Labour.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1929. 32 pp. 6d.

INDIA

BOMBAY

Labour Office. *Report on an Enquiry into Working Class Family Budgets in Ahmedabad.* Bombay, 1928. 48 + v pp.

IRISH FREE STATE

Department of Industry and Commerce. *Census of Population 1926.* Vol. II. *Occupations of Males and Females in each Province, County, County Borough, Urban and Rural District.* Dublin, Stationery Office, 1928. VIII + 228 pp. 2s. 3d.

At the Census of 1926 in the Irish Free State the same scheme of classification of occupations was adopted as at the British Census of 1921. In the preparation of this volume use was made of the *Classification of Occupations* published by H.M. Stationery Office in 1924, and of the *Dictionary of Occupational Terms* published by the British Ministry of Labour in 1927. Occupations are shown classified by sex and locality alone ; in later volumes dealing with ages, conjugal condition, industries, unemployment, industrial status, the Irish language, etc., occupations will be classified in accordance with each of these subject matters. Certain considerations to be kept clearly in view when using the above publication are indicated in the explanatory notes at the beginning of the volume.

JAPAN

Annual Report to the League of Nations on the Administration of the South Sea Islands under Japanese Mandate for the Year 1927. 203 pp.

NETHERLANDS

Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek. Bureau central de Statistique. *Overzicht van den Omvang der Vakbeweging op 1 Januari 1928. Statistique du mouvement syndical au 1er janvier 1928.* Statistique des Pays-Bas. The Hague, 1928. 59 pp. 90 cents.

DUTCH EAST INDIES

Departement van Landbouw, Nijverheid en Handel. Centraal Kantoor voor de Statistiek. *Statistisch Jaaroverzicht van Nederlandsch-Indië.* Vervolg van : Jaarcijfers v/h Koninkrijk der Nederlanden (Koloniën). *Jaargang 1927. Statistical Abstract for the Netherlands East Indies.* New Series of the Statistical Annual for the Netherlands (Part Colonies). *Year 1927.* Weltevreden ; The Hague, Martinus Nyhoff. xxx + 474 pp.

NORWAY

Departementet for Sociale Saker. Arbeidsradet og Fabrikktilsynet. *Arsberetninger fra Arbeidsradet og Fabrikktilsynet 1927.* Oslo, O. Christiansen, 1928. 63 pp.

Report of the Labour Council and report of the Factory Inspectorate for 1927.

POLAND

Ministère du Travail et de l'Assistance sociale. *Aperçu sur l'inspection du travail en Pologne en 1926.* Warsaw, 1928. 49 pp.

SPAIN

Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria. Instituto de Reeducación Profesional. *Organización Cientifica del Trabajo.* Reprinted from the review *Reeducacion Profesional.* Madrid, 1928. 122 pp.

SWITZERLAND

Département fédéral de l'Economie publique. *Rapports des inspecteurs fédéraux des fabriques sur l'exercice de leurs fonctions dans les années 1926 et 1927.* Berne, 1928. 241 pp.

Eidg. Volkswirtschaftsdepartement. Preisbildungskommission. *Die Verarbeitungs- und Verschliesspanne im Fleisch- und Fleischwarenverkehr der Schweiz.* Berne, 1928. 60 pp. 1.50 fr.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Department of Labour. *Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories for the Year 1927.* Pretoria, Govt. Printing and Stationery Office, 1928. 33 pp. 2s.

Department of Mines and Industries. *Report upon the Work of the Miners' Phthisis Medical Bureau for the Year ended 31 July 1927.* Pretoria, 1928. 51 pp.

UNITED STATES

Federal Board for Vocational Education. *A Study of Rehabilitated Persons. A Statistical Analysis of the Rehabilitation of 6,391 Disabled Persons.* Bulletin No. 132. Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation Series No. 16. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. IX + 46 pp. 10 cents.

—— *Twelfth Annual Report to Congress, 1928.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. IX + 70 pp. 10 cents.

NEW YORK

Department of Labour. Bureau of Statistics and Information. *Court Decisions on Workmen's Compensation Law, January 1927-August 1928. All Subjects.* Special Bulletin No. 156. Albany, 1928. 338 pp.

PENNSYLVANIA

Department of Labour and Industry. Bureau of Statistics. *Union Scale of Wages and Hours of Labour, 1927.* Special Bulletin No. 22. Harrisburg, 1928. 121 pp.

The Pennsylvania Department of Labour and Industry gives in this Bulletin the union scales of wages and hours of labour at 15 May 1927 for a number of important industries and occupations. The industries covered include the building, metal, printing and lithographing, electric railways, baking, and theatrical industries. Figures are given for a number of the chief occupations in each industry. Separate data are given for the chief cities of the State, and comparisons are made with figures for previous years (1919-1926).

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Abramowski, Edward. *Kooperatywa Jako Sprawa Wyzwolenia Ludu Pracujacego.* Wydanie V. Warsaw, Zwiazek Spoldzielni Spozywców, 1928. 176 pp.

Study on "Co-operation as a means of deliverance for the workers".

Adler, Dr. Emanuel. *Von Verträgen über Dienstleistungen, im Kommentar zum Allgemeinen Bürgerlichen Gesetzbuch.* Herausgegeben von Dr. Heinrich KLANG. III. Band. Vienna, Oesterreichische Staatsdruckerei, 1928. Pp. 113-348.

Articles 1151-1171 of the Austrian Civil Code contain provisions relating to the hiring of service and the hiring of labour. Professor Adler gives, in the form of a commentary on these provisions, an exposition of the body of regulations applicable to contracts implying the obligation to furnish and the right to demand work or service. Bearing in mind all the different aspects of wage-paid work, executed under conditions determined by modern industrialisation and social evolution, he distinguishes between and defines clearly the various categories of contract (hiring of service, hiring of labour, employment contract, labour contract, mandate) designed to establish the rights and obligations of the respective parties. Developed according to a clear and logical plan, based on full theoretical and practical expositions, and furnished with detailed bibliographical references to the different theses supported by legal practice and theory, this commentary is a first-class legal handbook. It helps to throw light on the nature and legal structure of the labour contract and to show the present position in relation to the pre-war conceptions of civil law.

Algemeen Secretariaat der Christelijke Sociale Werken van Belgie. *Vijftiende Vlaamsche Sociale Week gehouden te Leuven in St. Pieters college van 27 tot 29 Augustus 1928. Volledig Verslag.* Brussels. 292 pp.

This volume, published by the General Secretariat of the Belgian Christian-Social Workers' Organisations, contains nine lectures given at Saint Peter's College during the "Flemish Social Week" at Louvain in August 1928.

Allgemeiner Freier Angestelltenbund. *Angestellte und Arbeiter. Wandlungen in Wirtschaft und Gesellschaft.* Drei Vortr ge gehalten auf dem 3. AfA-Gewerkschaftskongress in Hamburg 1928 von Albert Thomas, Dr. Emil Lederer, Dr. Otto Suhr. Berlin, 1928. 83 pp.

American Federation of Labour. *Report of the Executive Council to the Forty-eighth Annual Convention, New Orleans, Louisiana, 19 November 1928.* Washington. 100 pp.

American Vocational Association. *Proceedings of the Second Annual Convention at Los Angeles, California, 17-20 December 1927.* Minneapolis, 1928. 196 pp.

Balodis, E. *Kooperacija Latvija. XIX. g.s. piecdesmitajos, sesdesmitajos un septindesmitajos gados.* Riga, 1928. 208 pp.

Study on co-operation in Latvia.

Baum, Dr. Georg. *Gerechtigkeit und Berufsinteresse im Arbeitsgerichtsprozess.* Schriften des Instituts für Arbeitsrecht an der Universität Leipzig. Herausgegeben von Prof. Dr. Erwin Jacobi. 19. Heft. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1928. 32 pp.

Examines the influence of trade organisations on the verdicts of the Labour Courts in Germany. The influence exercised is twofold : the organisations have the exclusive right of representing the parties, and the assessors of the Courts are chosen from lists sent in by them. The assessors must, however, be independent of the organisations. In spite of the one-sided character of the experience of the different members of the Court, the author states, a homogeneous spirit soon arises, and the verdict is usually unanimous.

Beiträge zur ländlichen Siedlung. Herausgegeben von Paul Seyferth. Der Evangelische Wohlfahrtsdienst. Herausgegeben von D. J. Steinweg. Heft 18. Berlin, Wichern-Verlag, 1928. 86 pp. 2.50 marks.

Contains articles on land settlement in Germany and its relation to general population problems.

Berg, Paal. *Lovene av den 5 Mai 1927 om arbeidstvister og tvungen voldgift.* Oslo, Gröndahl, 1928. 100 pp.

Commentary on the Acts of 5 May 1927 on Industrial Disputes and Compulsory Arbitration, by the President of the Industrial Court.

Berufsgenossenschaft der chemischen Industrie. *Die Unfallverhütungsvorschriften.* Sechste Auflage (Unveränderter Neudruck 1928). Berlin, Carl Heymann. 390 pp.

Commission syndicale de Belgique. *Rapports moral et financier pour les années 1926 et 1927.* Brussels, 1928. 312 pp.

Darmstaedter, Dr. Friedrich. *Das Wirtschaftsrecht in seiner soziologischen Struktur.* Beiheft Nr. 23 für die Mitglieder der Internationalen Vereinigung für Rechts- und Wirtschaftsphilosophie. Berlin-Grünewald, Dr. Walter Rothschild, 1928. 160 pp.

The author understands by the term *Wirtschaftsrecht* (economic law) the system of regulations covering private property (*privates Vermögensrecht*), national economy (*Reichswirtschaftsrecht*) and labour questions (*Arbeitsrecht*). He analyses the relations between national economy and law, and by means of a searching study seeks to determine the character of the law which should govern national economy. In his opinion, this "economic law" is designed, on the one hand, to encourage the accumulation of capital without lowering the standard of living of the masses, and, on the other, to safeguard this standard of living without raising obstacles to the accumulation of capital ; it should reconcile the two tendencies.

Décailly, B. *Notes introductives à l'étude des intoxications professionnelles.* Lille, 1928. 68 pp. (typescript).

Mr. Décailly presents, in an original form, some considerations on the various physical and physiological problems connected with the absorption of poisons. He examines their pathological action, and arrives at a conception of occupational diseases which he summarises in a formula perhaps somewhat surprising at first : " Poisoning ", he says, " is a staining (*teinture*) of the organism. "

Denker, Dr. Wilhelm. *Unfallverhütung.* Betriebswissenschaftliche Bücher. Herausgeber Dr. Werner Bondi. Band 8. Berlin, Georg Stilke, 1928. 110 pp.

Deutscher Holzarbeiter-Verband. *Unfall- und Gesundheitsgefahren in der Holzindustrie. Richtlinien für die Tätigkeit der Unfall- und Gesundheitsschutzkommissionen im Deutschen Holzarbeiter-Verband.* Berlin, 1928. 32 pp.

Frois, M. *Conférence sur la prévention des accidents du travail.* Vannes, Imprimerie Lafoyle et J. De Lamarzelle, 1928. 22 pp.

The French Union of Employers in the Metal and Mining Industries inaugurated its Service for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents with an address delivered by Mr. Frois, Mining Engineer and Safety Expert collaborating with the International Labour Office. The full text of the address is given in this pamphlet.

Granovsky, A. *Les problèmes de la terre en Palestine.* Paris, Editions Rieder, 1928. 228 pp. 12 frs.

An authorised French translation of a valuable book dealing with the interesting land problems presented by the Jewish colonisation of Palestine. The Hebrew edition was published in 1925, and for the purposes of this translation, to which Professor Charles Gide contributes a preface, only a few modifications have been made. Attention was drawn to the German and English editions — published respectively in 1925 and 1926 — in the *International Labour Review.* Vol. XV, No. 1, January 1927 (p. 165).

Handbuch des Genossenschaftswesens (in 4 Bänden). Herausgegeben in Gemeinschaft mit Dr. Julius von Gierke, Dr. Karl Hildebrand, von Dr. Ernst Grünfeld. I. Band. *Das Genossenschaftswesen volkswirtschaftlich und soziologisch betrachtet*, von Dr. Ernst Grünfeld. Halberstadt, H. Meyer, 1928. xiii + 349 pp.

This manual of co-operation will comprise four volumes. Volume I, which is devoted to the economic and social aspects of co-operation, is in three parts ; the first is theoretical, the two others are historical and descriptive. The theoretical exposition is by far the shortest, but it is supplemented on several points in the later parts of the book. The author first seeks to throw light on the essential character of co-operation, and what, in his view, constitutes the common criterion of all genuine co-operative organisations, whatever their object. On the basis of this examination he attempts a classification of co-operative societies, then reviews in turn the co-operative movement as a whole, and each of the principal groups in the proposed classification (co-operative organisations of the middle classes, the people and the consumers) in their relation to the important problems of social economy. The second part is a general history of co-operation ; the third contains a history and description of the co-operative movement in Germany. Each of the three parts is headed by a bibliography, which makes no claim to be exhaustive, but is designed as a guide to the student and the co-operator for whom the work is intended.

Harders, Niklaas. *Die Siedlungsverhältnisse in Ostfriesland.* Arbeiten zur Landeskunde und Wirtschaftsgeschichte Ostfrieslands. Herausgegeben vom Staatsarchiv in Uurich. Drittes Heft. Uurich, D. Friemann, 1927. 95 pp.

Describes land settlement in East Friesland from a topographical point of view. The information given is also of interest to students of sociology.

Hauff, Dr. Lilly, and Lindner, Dr. Elli. *Der Lette-Verein in der Geschichte der Frauenbewegung.* Berlin, Joseph Jastrow, 1928. 447 pp.

In addition to a history of the *Lette-Verein*, founded in 1866 with a view to furthering the vocational education of women, this volume contains abundant data on the development of the feminist movement in its social and economic aspects.

Hauptverband deutscher Krankenkassen. *Bericht über den 32. deutschen Krankenkassentag, 5.-7. August 1928 in Breslau.* Berlin. 240 pp.

Hook, Alfred. *The Human Factor in Industry and Politics. An Appeal to the Churches.* London, P. S. King and Son, 1928. XI + 211 pp.

The author makes a special appeal to the Churches to take a leading part in that remoulding of human nature which is so urgently necessary for the establishment of peace and goodwill in industry and in other spheres of national life. After some chapters devoted to an outline of the nature of man, he examines some causes of industrial unrest. He finds the remedy to lie in a mutual effort at better understanding and in the education and early training of all classes to that end.

Kubista, H., and Molzer, E. *O Pozemkové, Stavebni a Bytové Politice v Ceskoslov. Republice. (Hozhovor na Schuzich Sociálniho Ustavu CSR. Konanych 10. Listopadu 1927, 19. Ledna, 8. A 23. Unora A 8. Brezna 1928).* Publikace Sociálniho Ustavu C. 36. Prague, 1928. 125 pp.

An account of the debate on housing policy at the Czechoslovak Social Institute.

Landokonomiske Driftsbureau. *Undersögelser over Landbrugets Driftsforhold.* XI. *Regnskabsresultater fra danske Landbrug i Aaret 1926-27.* Copenhagen, 1928. 190 pp.

Eleventh annual report on accounts on Danish farms published by the Farm Management Bureau, Copenhagen.

Landsorganisationen i Sverge. *Berättelse över Landsorganisationens verksamhet ar 1927 avgiven till representantskapets möte den 24-28 april 1928.* Stockholm, 1928. 255 pp.

Leener, Georges de. *Les caisses de compensation des allocations familiales en Belgique. Leur rôle, leur législation, leur avenir.* Brussels, Maurice Lamertin, 1929. 195 pp.

The author, professor in the Free University of Brussels, traces the progress of the movement in favour of family allowances in Belgium and in France. He devotes a special chapter to the organisation of the Belgian equalisation funds. The greater number of these funds are inter-occupational district funds. The employers' contributions are usually calculated in proportion to the wages paid to their workers, and the allowances are paid by the district fund. As a general rule, only one member of a family is entitled to draw a family allowance. Penalties for abuses are provided. The principal difficulties with which the funds have to contend arise from the inadequate participation of the affiliated undertakings, which causes the contributions to be fixed at a relatively high figure. In 1928 the Belgian family allowance funds numbered twenty, and included nearly 1,300 affiliated undertakings employing approximately 300,000 workers, nearly 60,000 of whom were drawing family allowances. The author believes himself justified in stating that the institution of family allowances has contributed especially towards an increase in the birth rate and a decrease in infantile mortality. Belgian employers have been in favour of family allowances since their inception. After a period of distrust of this "employers' creation", the workers finally welcomed it. First the town of Liège, then communes, provinces, and, lastly, the State, have encouraged the development of family allowances.

A Decree of 10 February 1928 made contribution to a family allowance fund compulsory in all the specifications of work undertaken on behalf of the Ministry of Public Works. The Act of 14 April 1928 provided for a similar obligation in the specifications of State undertakings and of all public authorities.

The author concludes that family allowance funds are a permanent institution in Belgium. He recommends the creation of inter-occupational district funds

wherever special conditions do not render necessary the organisation of general occupational funds. In his opinion the importance of family allowance funds is increasing.

The text of the Act of 14 April 1928 and model rules for a family allowance fund are given in the appendix

Meriam, Lewis, and others. *The Problem of Indian Administration.* Institute for Government Research. Baltimore, The Johns Hopkins Press, 1928. XXII + 872 pp.

This voluminous report is the result of a survey of the economic and social conditions of the American Indian, undertaken by the Institute for Government Research at the request of the Secretary of the Interior, with a view to the collection of authentic information as a basis for any reforms considered necessary to fit these peoples to withstand the impact of white civilisation and to maintain "at least a minimum standard of health and decency".

The enquiry was carried out in reservations, agencies, hospitals, schools, and many communities to which Indians have migrated, and in practically all Western States with any considerable Indian population.

As a result, a large quantity of information has been made available concerning Indian health and disease, education, general economic conditions, family and community life, migrant Indians, and missionary activities among Indians. The legal aspects of the Indian problem are also dealt with. The report shows that the overwhelming majority of the Indian population are poor and ill-adjusted to white economic and social civilisation, while the economic basis of their own social organisation has been destroyed. The past work of the Government on their behalf is stated to have been ineffective, owing mainly to the lack of a reasoned and effective Indian policy and of funds for the payment of efficient officers to deal with Indian questions. In a number of important recommendations, the report endeavours to lay down the basic principles of a new policy destined to achieve the education of the Indian in the real sense of the word, to remove his disabilities and to fit him ultimately to become absorbed in the general population of the country.

Michligk, Paul. *Dienen und Verdienen. Deutsche Experimente. Amerikanische Erfolge.* Zweite Auflage. Stuttgart, Verlag für Wirtschaft und Verkehr, 1927. 323 pp.

This is a volume of propaganda and makes no claim to be a scientific work. Its aim is simply to explain, for the enlightenment of Europeans interested in economic questions in their practical aspect, the ideas, the methods, and especially the mentality which have made possible in the United States the attainment of certain results in industrial relations. As the title indicates, the work lays special emphasis on the American conception of "service" as the primary function of all economic concerns. The book is provided with an introduction by the big Silesian manufacturer Kuno Grohmann, who describes two examples of the application of American methods in Czechoslovakia : the Bata and the Witkowitz systems. The work is abundantly documented, much information being furnished in particular on conditions in the United States, wage systems, profit sharing, and workers' participation in management.

Molitor, Erich, Nipperdey, Hans C., Schott, Richard. *Europäisches Arbeitsvertragsrecht. Unter Mitwirkung in- und ausländischer Gelehrten.* I. Teil. (*Belgien, Frankreich, Griechenland, Italien, Luxemburg, Portugal, Spanien*) von Erich Molitor. Arbeiten zum Handels-, Gewerbe- und Landwirtschaftsrecht. Herausgegeben von Dr. Ernst Heymann. Nr. 50. Marburg, G. Braun, 1928. X + 160 pp.

The first volume of this work contains a German translation of all the legal provisions governing the terms of and procedure relating to the labour contract in Belgium, France, Greece, Italy, Luxemburg, Portugal and Spain. The texts are preceded by a bibliography containing detailed indications concerning works on the laws and regulations in force, and on legal practice and theory. An introductory note, moreover, gives a rapid and clear survey of the different legal conceptions relating to the chief aspects of the labour contract. There are, as yet, it is recalled, few countries in which the legislator has provided, for the determination

of rights and obligations resulting from wage-paid work under modern conditions, a legal instrument in which account has been taken of all the special circumstances due to the economic and social evolution of the last century. Almost everywhere the labour contract is still governed by the regulations of the old civil law relating especially to the hiring of service and to the mandate. These were framed chiefly with a view to the protection of individual interests, and therefore neglect the social interests of the community. By its lucidity, as well as by the mass of information it contains, this study is a notable contribution to the efforts made in various countries to provide modern wage-paid labour with an adequate labour contract. Seamen's articles of agreement, which were the subject of a publication issued by the International Labour Office, and the law relating to collective agreements have purposely been omitted in this work. The next volume will deal with other European countries.

Müller, Dr. August. *Die unmittelbaren Beziehungen zwischen den Genossenschaften der Landwirte und der Verbraucher. Kritische Betrachtungen über Beschlüsse der Weltwirtschaftskonferenz in Genf.* Kieler Vorträge gehalten im Wissenschaftlichen Klub des Instituts für Weltwirtschaft und Seeverkehr an der Universität Kiel. Herausgegeben von Prof. Dr. Bernhard HARMS. Jena, Gustav Fischer, 1928. 67 pp.

The author attaches special importance to a resolution passed at the International Economic Conference recommending the establishment of direct relations between co-operative societies for the sale of agricultural produce and distributive co-operative societies. This resolution of an official international conference, presented as an essential part of a programme of agricultural reconstruction, constitutes (he says) a success for the co-operative idea which until recently it was impossible to foresee, since in a large number of countries the co-operative movement has met hitherto with more indifference, or even hostility, than encouragement from public authorities. He regards with scepticism, however, the idea he detects at the base of the resolution, i.e. "the elimination of the conflict between buyer and seller, consumer and producer".

Murphy, Michael. *Co-operative Marketing of Agricultural Products.* Agricultural Bulletin No. 3. Cork University Press. London, Longmans Green and Co., 1928. 140 pp.

The book gives a very clear and complete analysis of the problem of marketing, and a description of the various types of co-operative marketing organisations (laying due stress on the difference between the centralised and the federated types), and of the commercial mechanism of co-operative marketing, with a brief outline of its main possibilities and limitations.

National Child Labour Committee. *Proceedings of the Twenty-fourth Annual Meeting held in Memphis, Tennessee, 4 May 1928.* New York. 35 pp.

Neuefeind, Maria Magdalena. *Bischof Ketteler und die soziale Frage seiner Zeit.* Inaugural-Dissertation zur Erlangung der Doktorwürde der Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Köln. Cologne, 1927. 70 pp.

Oesterr. Land- und Forstarbeiterverband in Wien. *Bericht des Vorstandes des Oesterr. Land- und Forstarbeiterverbandes an den 5. ordentlichen Verbandstag, Wien, im November 1928.* Vienna. 120 pp.

The Austrian Union of Agricultural and Forestry Workers has published its first printed report, which describes the history of the organisation since its constitution. The report cites interesting examples of the difficulties encountered in organising agricultural and forestry workers. It contains an important survey of the present state of collective agreements in Austrian agriculture and forestry. There is a section dealing with the development of Austrian legislation on social insurance in agriculture.

Opci radnicki savez Jugoslavije. *Polozaj industrijskih radnika u Jugoslaviji Izvjestaj Opci radnickoz savezi Jugoslavije za god 1926-1927.* By Josip BEKER Zagreb, 1928. 120 pp.

Report of the Yugoslav General Federation of Industrial Workers for 1926-1927. Contains a short account of the living and working conditions of industrial workers and a brief review of the trade union movement in the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

Philip, André. *Henri de Man et la crise doctrinale du socialisme.* Editions de l'année politique française et étrangère. Collection des réformes politiques et sociales sous la direction de Bernard LAVERGNE. Paris, J. Gamber, 1928. 197 pp. 18 frs.

The aim of this book is to give an idea of the doctrines of Henri de Man as set forth especially in his work *Au delà du Marxisme*, the German edition of which (*Zur Psychologie des Sozialismus*) appeared in 1926 and the French edition in 1927. This concise, but accurate and perfectly clear, analysis has been written, Mr. Bernard LAVERGNE says in his preface, with a lucidity and penetration which have aroused the admiration of Henri de Man himself. It has been carefully checked by him.

Mr. Philip, who recently spent two years in the United States, before proceeding to his analysis of the new doctrine, gives an outline of the relation between industrial and commercial rationalisation and the socialist doctrine.

Philips' Commercial Map of China. Edited by the late Sir Alexander HOSIE, M.A., LL.D., F.R.G.S. Second edition. Size : 62 x 45 inches. Scale : 48 miles to 1 inch. With index. London, George Philip and Son, 1928. Price : on rollers, 30s. ; in case, 35s.

Sir Alexander Hosie was a former British Consul-General and Commercial Attaché in China. He had spent the greater part of his life in the British Consular Service in that country, and the fruit of his forty years' experience and many journeys was gathered in a number of books and in the map published as *Philips' Commercial Map of China.* This map was first issued in 1922. The present edition, issued in 1928, has been brought up to date by Lady Hosie, who had assisted the author in preparing the first edition.

This map should be invaluable to the student of the economics of China. It contains some 4,000 place names, and shows for each region and locality the principal animal and vegetable products, mineral products, and manufactures. Railways working or under construction, navigable rivers (with degree of navigability), canals, steamer routes, cables, ports, heights (in feet), caravan routes, telegraphs and wireless stations are also shown. Kilometre and Chinese *li* scales are given, as well as a scale for English statute miles. Provinces, capitals of provinces and other important cities are well marked.

Pitman's Dictionary of Industrial Administration. A Comprehensive Encyclopaedia of the Organisation, Administration and Management of Modern Industry. Edited by John LEE, O.B.E., M.A., M.Com.Sc. With Contributions by over 100 Eminent Specialists. London, Sir Isaac Pitman, 1928-1929. Part 24, pp. 1105-1151. 1s. 3d.

The contents and arrangement of this valuable encyclopaedia have already been indicated in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVII, No. 6, June 1928, p. 929. It was originally planned to appear in thirty fortnightly parts ; this scheme, however, has been modified, and Part 24, recently issued, completes the work. In order to facilitate reference and render it convenient to handle, the dictionary is divided into two volumes and a complete index is provided in Vol. II. Binding cases for the different parts which make up Vols. I and II are obtainable from the publishers at the price of 2s. each.

Poerschke, Dr. Stephan. *Die Neugestaltung der Arbeitsaufsicht. Ein Beitrag zur Verwaltungsreform.* Berlin, Carl Heymann, 1928. 55 pp.

Potthoff, Dr. Heinz. *Die gesetzliche Regelung der Arbeitszeit in der Gärtnerei.* Kommentar zur Arbeitszeitverordnung vom 14. 4. 1927. Berlin, Verlagsgesellschaft " Gärtnerei-Fachblatt ", 1928. 48 pp.

Raab, Dr. Friedrich, and Meyer, Dr. Walther. *Die Organisation der staatlichen Gewerbeaufsicht.* Reich und Länder. Zeitschrift für die Entwicklung der Verfassung und Verwaltung in Deutschland. Herausgegeben von Walter ADAMETZ,

Herbert CONRAD, Friedrich RAAB. Sonderhefte des zweiten Jahrgangs. Herausgegeben von Friedrich RAAB. Erstes Sonderheft. Stuttgart, Berlin, J. Hess, 1928. 74 + 24 pp.

Reichsverband der deutschen Landkrankenkassen. *Verbandstagung des Reichsverbandes der deutschen Landkrankenkassen, Dresden, 7-9 Juni 1928.* Berlin. 153 pp.

République tchécoslovaque. Annuaire 1928. Sous la rédaction de Bohuslav HORAK. Prague, Editions " Orbis ", 1928. XII + 351 pp., illustr.

The Czechoslovak yearbook for 1928, which is also published in German, contains a number of special articles on political, economic and social conditions in Czechoslovakia, contributed by different authors on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of the Republic. The chapter on social policy is written by Mr. Lev WINTER, and the chapter on occupational organisation by Mr. Josef CHMELAR. The volume is well illustrated.

Royal Agricultural Society of England. *Agricultural Research in 1927.* London, Murray, 1928. 190 pp. 1s.

This is the third annual review of scientific research in agriculture published for the use of farmers and other persons interested by the Royal Agricultural Society of England. The emphasis is principally on research in England, but there is some reference to research work in other countries. The section by Professor ORWIN on " Agricultural Economics " devotes a great deal of attention to labour problems — the upshot of a short analysis of the discussions and literature of the year would seem to point to the advisability of reducing the quantity of labour while maintaining as nearly as possible the present output, rather than of maintaining the present labour supply and increasing gross output. The section by Mr. OWEN on " Agricultural Engineering " includes a note on standardisation of implements and one on scientific organisation of agricultural labour. Very complete references are given at the end of each section.

Scholtz, Dr. Cornelius. *Public Health Service in Hungary. Medical Guide.* V. International Medical Congress for Industrial Accidents and Occupational Diseases, Budapest 1928. Budapest, 1928. 263 pp.

This work is also published in French.

Schwedn, Dr. Constance von. *Die Landarbeiterorganisationen Ostdeutschlands und ihre klassenmässige und ständische Struktur.* Schriften zur politischen Bildung. Herausgegeben von der Gesellschaft " Deutscher Staat ". III. Reihe. Wirtschaft. Heft 12. Langensalza, Hermann Meyer, 1928. 78 pp.

This little book describes the agricultural workers' organisation in eastern Germany. It deals especially with the relations between the Socialist and Christian trade unions and the " Yellow " trade union of agricultural workers, whose members are recruited almost exclusively in the north-eastern part of Germany. The book contains much interesting information.

Secrétariat des Paysans suisses. *L'organisation de la mise en valeur du bétail de boucherie à l'étranger et en Suisse.* Brugg, 1928. 359 pp.

With a view to determining the principles and methods of a good organisation of the cattle market, the Swiss Peasants' Secretariat requested one of its collaborators to make a study tour in Germany, Denmark, the Netherlands and Czechoslovakia. The first part of the Secretariat's report summarises the data collected The second part deals with the marketing of cattle in Switzerland itself.

Sierakowsky, Heinrich. *Veröffentlichungen des Zentralverbandes deutscher Konsumvereine als Quellen genossenschaftlichen Wissens.* Hamburg, 1928. 138 pp.

The collection of the *Konsumgenossenschaftliche Rundschau* published during the last twenty-five years, and the twenty-five *Jahrbücher* (of 2,000 to 2,500 pages each) issued by the Union of German Distributive Co-operative Societies, contain an exceptionally large and varied collection of documents bearing on theoretical and practical problems, the history and statistics, etc., of the co-operative move-

ment in general and, in particular, of the German distributive co-operative societies. This wealth of information was, for the student, an obstacle as well as an attraction. Mr. Sierakowsky's book, in which the questions dealt with are classified under 26 headings and 84 sub-headings, with references to the date and page of the publications of the Union in which the information desired will be found, should facilitate a methodical use of this abundant source of material.

Simonin. *Essai sur la question sociale.* Paris, Bibliothèque de l'Impartial français. 125 pp.

In the author's opinion, neither the programmes of the different political parties nor those of the trade unions of different tendencies provide a solution of the social problem ; more important, he says, is the progress of science and invention. Profit sharing, co-operation, *commandites* and employers' institutions are mere palliatives. In every undertaking, of the three fundamental factors in profit getting the employer is the essential factor. As such, he should retain the authority and the management, as well as the first share in the net profit. The capitalist, by reason of the increasing dissociation of capital and management, is now only a secondary factor, and must be content with a smaller share in the profit. The worker is a far less important factor in profit getting, but, on the other hand, he is the essential factor in production ; it is therefore in production rather than in the profit of a business that his interest should be enlisted. The means recommended by Mr. Simonin is " trade union endowment " (*dotation syndicale*). This consists in the grant to organised workers of a certain percentage on gross returns, in addition to their wages — the percentage being fixed by law according to the nature of the undertaking — and in leaving the members of the trade union free to manage as they think fit, for corporative ends, this yearly increasing collective property. In practice, the operation will usually reduce itself to a simple transfer of the yield of the tax on turnover from the State to the trade unions. For the undertakings which are not liable to this tax, the employers' contribution, it is suggested, should take the form of a percentage on wages. The author considers this method of " trade union endowment " applicable to all categories of workers (including civil servants and domestic servants) ; it would, in his opinion, have the advantage of establishing the solidarity of capital and labour, of encouraging the " economic education " of the workers, and, by giving a great impetus to trade unionism, of bringing about " a slow but sure slipping of political and legislative power from the hands of the politicians into those of the technicians ".

Studnicki, Wladyslaw. *Przewroty i reformy agrarne Europy powojennej i Polski.* Warsaw, Gebethner and Wolff, 1927. 288 pp.

Study on agrarian reform in Russia, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Rumania, Czechoslovakia and Poland.

The League of Nations. A Survey, a Directory and a Who's Who of the League, the International Labour Organisation, the Permanent Court of International Justice and the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. Parchment Guides. London, Europa Publications. 221 pp.

Thomas, Dorothy Swaine. *Social Aspects of the Business Cycle.* New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1927. xiv + 217 pp.

The purpose of this study, which gives the results of the most comprehensive statistical analysis which has so far been made of the sociological aspects of the business cycle, has been, in the words of the author, " to discover in what spheres of social activity the business cycle shows its influence, and to measure the relative degree of this influence in each of the fields considered ". The book contains a critique of previous researches into the problem, and chapters on the relation between the business cycle and marriages, births, deaths, pauperism, alcoholism, crime and emigration. In the case of emigration the conclusion is reached that the decisive factor seems to be the degree of prosperity in the country to which the emigrants are going rather than that of the country they are leaving. Business prosperity abroad seems to be a cause of emigration, but business depression at home rarely seems to drive people to emigrate. Thus it is found that there is a

high correlation ($+0.77 \pm 0.06$ over the period 1870-1913) between the numbers of emigrants leaving the United Kingdom for the United States and the movements of the business cycle in the United States.

Trades and Labour Congress of Canada. *Report of the Proceedings of the Forty-fourth Annual Convention held at Toronto 10-14 September 1928.* 212 pp.

University of California. Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics. *Cost of Living Studies. Quantities and Cost Estimate of the Standard of Living of the Professional Class.* Berkeley, Cal.; London, Cambridge University Press, 1928. IV + 31 pp.

This is a very human document. It gives the Heller Committee's quantity and cost estimate of the consumption standard of a professional family in the San Francisco Bay district. In establishing the standard, actual earning power is taken into consideration. The average quantities are based on estimates submitted by a number of housewives. The family chosen as representative of the class under consideration consists of a man and wife, nearer 40 than 30, and two children — a boy of 11 and a girl of 5.

The distribution of expenditure among the different groups (food, clothing, housing and housing operation and miscellaneous) is shown at the level of prices current in November 1927. The total — $6,500 a year — is the sum considered necessary "to pay for the goods and services required as part of that scale of wants which most professional people consider at once n cessary and conservative".

Vogel, Victor de. *Les coopératives scolaires.* Rapport présenté au Conseil Général (Ligue de l'Enseignement) le 13 mai 1928. Supplément au "Bulletin de la Ligue de l'Enseignement", No. 2, mars-mai 1928. Brussels, 1928. 37 pp. 3 frs.

The author describes the experiments of Mr. Profit, Inspector of Primary Schools and originator of "scholastic co-operation" in France. He explains the principles on which this form of co-operation is based and describes the results attained and the educational advantages which it offers. He expresses a wish that a similar movement should be initiated in Belgium.

Walker, John H. *The International Labour Office.* Illinois State Federation of Labour. Forty-sixth Annual Convention, Herrin, Illinois, 8 November 1928. Supplemental Report of the President. 20 pp.

Important parts of the verbatim report of the Eleventh Session of the International Labour Conference (Geneva, 30 May-16 June 1928) were published in the *Illinois State Federation of Labour Weekly News Letter.* Mr. Walker, President of the Federation, who attended the Conference, gives in this additional report some personal experiences and impressions, together with his views on some important problems which the International Labour Organisation may be instrumental in settling, and on the position of the United States. "We not only need international regulations", he writes, "but we must have them if we are to proceed in the development of the human race, and in the utilisation of our material resources for the benefit of that race in an orderly, intelligent and civilised way."

Waller, Dr. Peter. *Probleme der deutschen chemischen Industrie.* Halberstadt, H. Meyer, 1928. XI + 241 pp.

This work, in which the author has amplified a thesis submitted to the Faculty of Law and Political Economy in the University of Hamburg, explains in detail the economic problems and the problems of organisation which have to be dealt with in the chemical industry in Germany. It contains valuable information on this important factor in German economy. The reader will find in it an interesting account of the origin and organisation of the *I. G. Farbenindustrie*, an analysis of the relations of the German chemical industry with similar industries in other countries, and a clear and concise description of the technical problems of the chemical industry.

World Peace Foundation. *Industry, Governments and Labour. Record of the International Labour Organisation 1919-1928.* Boston, 1928. 231 pp.

The first part of this book is devoted to the origin and establishment of the International Labour Organisation, and the second to its structure which is explained

in great detail. The third contains a summary of the results attained from 1919 to 1928. The arrangement adopted follows the scheme of the second section of the first part of the *Report of the Director* to the Eleventh Session of the Conference, in which, it will be recalled, for the first time, the many subjects under consideration were arranged under general headings.

No important aspect of the varied work of the International Labour Organisation or of its history has been overlooked in the compendium published by the World Peace Foundation, while the information supplied is presented in a clear and handy form. There can be no doubt of the value of this volume as a book of reference. It should prove helpful in promoting a more lucid understanding of the scope and policy of the International Labour Organisation and in stimulating interest in international effort in the cause of social progress.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED BY THE OFFICE

Charlemagne, Georges. *Quelques aspects de l'évolution agricole depuis la révolution. Le pays d'Ardents en Berry. Etude économique et sociale d'un canton rural en 1926.* Chateauroux, Imprimerie Langlois, 1926. 131 pp.

Elster, Alexander. *Das Konto des Alkohols in der deutschen Volkswirtschaft.* 3te. völlig neu bearbeitete Auflage. Berlin, Neuland-Verlag, 1927. 59 pp.

Programme de l'Internationale communiste (adopté par le VIe Congrès mondial de 1er septembre 1928 à Moscou) suivi des Statuts de l'I.C. Paris, Bureau d'Editions. 85 pp. 1 fr.

Trentin, Silvio. *L'aventure italienne. Légendes et réalités.* Préface de M. A. Aulard. Paris, Les Presses universitaires de France, 1928. 332 pp. 15 frs.

Wer ist's ? Biographien von rund 15,000 lebenden Zeitgenossen. Angaben über Herkunft, Familie, Lebenslauf, Veröffentlichungen und Werke, Lieblingsbeschäftigung, Parteiangehörigkeit, Mitgliedschaft bei Gesellschaften, Anschrift, Andere Mitteilungen von allgemeinem Interesse. Auflösung von ca. 3,000 Pseudonymen. Begründet und herausgegeben von Hermann A. L. Degener. IX. Ausgabe. Volkommen neu bearbeitet und bedeutend erweitert. Unsere Zeitgenossen. Berlin, Herman Degener, 1928. XLIX + 1789 pp.

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The International Labour Office is not responsible for opinions expressed in signed articles.

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

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General Principles of an International Convention on the Conditions and Contracts of Employment of Foreign Workers: II[1]

by

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COLLECTIVE RECRUITING

In the bilateral treaties negotiated by Governments, as well as at the great international conferences, it is usual to-day to distinguish between workers immigrating individually and on their own initiative, and those recruited collectively. The former are considered as pursuing personal and individual aims, the realisation of which scarcely comes within the scope of international conventions; for this reason treaties pay but little heed to them. A great number of provisions, on the contrary, deal in considerable detail with workers recruited collectively, and their recruiting appears in the light of a great social problem worthy of being dealt with by international action. For instance, it is this latter group that is referred to by the Recommendation of the International Labour Conference (Washington, 1919) on collective recruiting, and the resolutions of the Emigration Commission of 1921, and of the Emigration and Immigration Conferences held at Rome in 1924 and at Havana in 1928. And it is on their behalf too that the Vienna Chamber of Workers and Employees and the Austrian Trade Union Commission have asked that action should be taken.

In order to meet all these suggestions and limit the proposed Convention to questions that have really been a matter of debate, it seems desirable to restrict this discussion also to collective recruiting, and to leave the consideration of the position of workers who emigrate individually to separate arrangements.

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[1] For Part I of this article, cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIX, No. 3, March 1929, pp. 317-337.

What then are the exact points which should be covered by agreements on collective recruiting ? To determine them we shall examine in turn the opinions expressed by the International Labour Conference, the International Emigration Commission of 1921 the International Emigration and Immigration Conferences held at Rome in 1924 and at Havana in 1928, the proposals of the Austrian associations, and the solutions adopted in bilateral treaties.

Previous Agreement between Countries

The first principle laid down in the Recommendation of the International Labour Conference held at Washington in 1919 is that the recruiting of bodies of workers in one country with a view to their employment in another country should be permitted only by mutual agreement between the countries concerned.

A similar idea is expressed in resolution III, 7 (1), of the Rome Emigration and Immigration Conference in the following phrase which to some extent supplements the text of the Washington Recommendation :

> The recruiting of workers for foreign countries may be subjected in all countries to previous authorisation by the authorities of the State.

While the Rome Conference thus took a legal view, the Havana Conference arrived at the same conclusions on utilitarian grounds. It recommended that :

> By means of agreements, co-operation be established between the services of the countries of emigration and immigration with a view to determining *before the embarkation* of the emigrant that he is not likely to be rejected by the country of destination.

It will in fact be found that all bilateral treaties which mention recruiting are based on a recognition of this principle ; there should certainly be no great difficulty in having it accepted here also, for to carry on either civilian or military recruiting in a foreign State is to infringe the full sovereignty of that State and cannot be legitimate without its authorisation.

This reservation is in the interests of both the countries concerned : if, in fact, recruiting is subject to the law of the country of emigration, the work must be subject to that of the country of immigration, and there is thus a balance of authorities which it is in the interests of both to recognise. Moreover, the country in which recruiting is carried on may exercise its supervision more

or less strictly and may make the granting of permission subject to few or many formalities; it may even give its tacit consent to recruiting by refraining from making any objection to it. But its right to do so must be safeguarded, and it does not seem possible to conceive of a Convention not including this provision, particularly a multilateral Convention in which no country knows in advance who all the other contracting States may be.

Previous Consultation of Employers and Workers

The second principle contained in the 1919 Recommendation is sometimes more difficult to apply. It states, in fact, that recruiting should be permitted only after consultation with employers and workers in each country in the industries concerned.

The International Emigration Commission of 1921 adopted an even more definite resolution on this point. In resolution No. 14 (3) it declared that in organising recruiting particular account should be taken of the following principle:

Consultation of employers' and workers' organisations concerned in case of recruiting carried out as a result of Conventions between Governments.

The resolution of the Rome Conference contains the following passage (III, 7 (3)):

In the case of agreements between Governments for the collective recruiting of workers, the conditions of recruiting may be established *after consulting the employers and workers of the industries concerned in the two countries.*

Lastly, a unanimous resolution of the International Labour Conference of 1926, on unemployment, makes the same stipulation with regard to finding employment abroad: this should be done only after consultation of the employers' and workers' organisations.

Passing to the examination of bilateral treaties, we find that the Franco-Polish and Franco-Czechoslovak Labour Treaties contain the following provision (sections 12 and 11 respectively):

The Governments of both countries shall fix by agreement the numbers and classes of workers who may be recruited, in such a way as not to prejudice the economic development of one country or the interests of the workers of the other. For this purpose they shall appoint a Commission which shall meet alternately at Paris and Warsaw [Prague] at least once a year.

Each of the Governments shall communicate to this Commission the views of a national consultative committee, which shall include representatives *of employers and of workers*, together with representatives of the Government Departments concerned.

Between Germany and Poland it has been agreed that the work shall be carried out and the wages paid in conformity with a model contract drawn up by the (*joint*) Vocational Committee for Agriculture and Silviculture attached to the German Federal Institute for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance.

The Franco-Italian Treaty does not deal specially with questions of recruiting ; it does however provide that for the protection of Italian workers in France a *mixed committee* shall be set up composed of French and Italian nationals, and including two delegates representing the employers and the workers concerned.

In other bilateral treaties it is usually merely stated that the conditions of recruiting shall be drawn up by mutual agreement between the Governments concerned, but without mentioning whether this agreement is to be preceded by consultation with the employers and workers concerned.

It is therefore fairly generally agreed that it is desirable to consult the persons concerned ; the advantage of this is in any case self-evident.

This agreement finds expression in various forms. While proposals made in international circles appear to favour the consultation of the workers and employers concerned, and while certain labour treaties contain similar solutions, most other treaties state that the Governments concerned are to be consulted, but do not specify the procedure to be followed for this consultation, merely reserving to each Government the right to consult suitable organisations, joint or otherwise, according to the necessities of the case.

This solution is adopted particularly in treaties concluded between countries or for industries in which trade union organisations are non-existent or in an embryonic stage, and more especially in treaties concluded for recruiting in non-European countries. It is obviously necessary to consider the special occupational or national conditions in these countries if they are to ratify the Convention. In order to take account of all possible conditions, it would perhaps be desirable merely to stipulate that the employers and workers concerned shall be consulted, leaving it to Governments to make particular arrangements for organising this consultation according to local possibilities. Another solution might be to insert a fairly general formula in the Convention and to supplement it by a more detailed Recommendation addressed to the Governments, pointing out the desirability, and even the necessity, of this consultation of the occupational organisations of employers and workers wherever this is possible.

Other solutions may be devised, but it certainly seems that in some form or other it will be necessary to provide for consultation of the persons concerned.

Supervision by National and Foreign Authorities

The question of recruited workers was dealt with in various other resolutions by the International Emigration Commission of 1921, and in particular the following :

14. If and when bilateral Conventions for the recruitment of bodies of workers are made between Members in pursuance of the Recommendation of the Washington Conference, or where collective recruiting takes place in another country, the following principles should be borne in mind :

(1) Inspection and supervision by the competent authorities of the two States concerned, each on its own territory.

It has been seen above that recruiting should not be carried on in a country without the previous consent of this country. The point need not be discussed again here.

Once this agreement has been arrived at between the countries, however, who is to carry out the recruiting in the country of emigration, who is to find employment for the immigrants, and who is to inspect them and supervise them in the country of immigration ? Is it to be agents of the country of emigration or of the country of immigration ? The decision on this point is important, for it will have a decisive influence on the attitude of many countries to the proposed Convention, according as it entrusts the inspection and supervision of recruiting and the observance of contracts to the country in which the recruiting is carried out, or to that in which the workers are to be employed.

All Governments, in effect, wish to maintain their full sovereignty in their relations with all persons residing on their territory. They consider that all recruiting of emigrants carried out in their country, as well as the inspection and supervision of immigrants within their frontiers, should be exclusively subject to their authority ; and many Governments would certainly prefer to abandon all recruiting and the employment of all foreign labour rather than agree to the slightest encroachment on their rights in this respect.

At a meeting of delegates of various countries of immigration held in Paris in October 1923, at the invitation of the French Government, the attention of the members was especially struck by the fact that the countries with the longest experience of immi-

gration questions were strongly opposed to any innovation which, under the guise of social protection for foreign workers, would in practice either extend the powers of consular agents or create new representative bodies, hitherto unknown in international law, whose activities would be an extension of those of their country of origin, either in finding employment or in inspection and supervision.

Similar rights are also claimed by countries of immigration with reference to settlement undertakings which wish to establish themselves on their territory.

The right of States to legislate either for their nationals abroad or for all the inhabitants of their own territory was hotly discussed at the International Parliamentary Commercial Conference held at Rio de Janeiro in September 1927, and the debate ended in the adoption of the following resolution, which is drawn up in the same spirit as those already cited :

> 6. Conventions concerning emigration and immigration can never impose on a country legally organised and enjoying full sovereignty any measures which would exempt immigrants from the application of the legislation and from the jurisdiction of the country of immigration.

This conclusion is repeated twice in slightly more general but equally definite terms in resolution 7 of the same Conference :

> Every resolution concerning migration must be based on a dual principle :
> (1) The equality of civil rights between nationals and aliens ;
> (2) The status of a free man, which must be recognised as belonging to every emigrant, since the rights and the dignity of human personality must be everywhere respected, while at the same time avoiding any possible infringement of the sovereignty of each State within its own frontiers.
> The legal position of the foreigner in general, and of the immigrant in particular, resident in a State is subject to the internal legislation of that State.

It is well to emphasise this repeated assertion, because the resolutions in question gave rise to a very heated discussion and violent polemics, during which the countries of Latin-America that are most favourable to immigration very clearly stated that this principle must continue to be the basis of any national or international system of regulations for migration. Shortly afterwards the same principles found further support at the Pan-American Conference held at Havana in January 1928, which — this time with the agreement of all the American countries — adopted a

decision very similar to that adopted at Rio a few months before.

On the other side may be mentioned the resolution adopted by the Conference of countries of emigration held at Rome in 1921, expressing the desire that the International Labour Conference should examine the question of the supervision of the execution of contracts of engagement and of deductions from wages, without explicitly stating who should be responsible for this.

The principle, moreover, is of equal importance to the two groups of countries, for, as is very plainly stated in the Franco-Polish, Franco-Czechoslovak, and Germano-Polish Labour Treaties, and in nearly all treaties referring to recruiting, it is for the Government of the country of immigration to decide how many workers it desires and in what districts they are to work, just as it is for the country of emigration to fix how many workers shall be recruited and in what district the recruiting shall be carried out.

Once this question of principle has been decided there is, of course, no reason why, tacitly or formally, by specific agreements and according to circumstances, each country should not exercise, or even, if it so desires, share the exercise of the right recognised as its exclusive domain. Each country will see whose co-operation may be requested, what persons shall be authorised to cross the frontiers in order to carry on recruiting, what is the nature of the co-operation to be given, how inspection shall be carried out, and what welfare or assistance institutions shall be authorised to carry on their activities. Friendly and voluntary regulations on these points are of the very essence of international conventions, and the more definitely the principle of non-intervention by other States in their internal affairs is recognised, the farther the Governments will be prepared to go in the way of concessions.

Position of Foreign Agents

In certain bilateral agreements, indeed, considerable importance is attached to this foreign co-operation. Its nature may vary widely. Sometimes the Government of a country of emigration maintains special diplomatic attachés at its embassies, legations, or consulates, whose duty it is to keep in touch with the officials of the countries of immigration in all matters that concern emigrants; sometimes the diplomatic or consular agents themselves are entrusted with this task. In some cases the country of immigration keeps a diplomat, official, secretary, special recruiting agent, or other intermediary in the country of emigration to see

that recruiting is carried on satisfactorily, since its success depends entirely on the extent to which the recruited workers meet the needs of their employers. In other cases, again, it is the country of emigration that sends special agents to the country of immigration.

It may even happen that the countries concerned are obliged by agreement or by law to make such appointments. Under the Germano-Polish Agreement, for instance, the German Central Office for Workers (*Deutsche Arbeiterzentrale*) is obliged to send a sufficient number of agents to deal with recruiting questions in co-operation with the Polish officials. According to Indian law, again, countries wishing to procure emigrants from India are obliged to maintain agents in India who take complete responsibility for the information provided for emigrants. Elsewhere, as in the Austro-Polish Labour Treaty, for example, the Treaty itself organises joint inspection of the foreign workers by the countries concerned.

The presence of accredited foreign agents is particularly desirable in the case of distant countries with which communication is slow and difficult. The arrangement between Brazil (São Paulo) and Poland, among others, provides for the appointment of attachés of this type.

It can be seen, therefore, that there are numerous methods of ensuring co-operation between the Governments concerned in recruiting operations. But it appears impossible to provide for all these many and varied cases in a general Labour Convention, which can hardly do more than lay down principles. It will be sufficient if no clause is included which may prevent Governments from spontaneously taking suitable measures for this purpose, for everything not forbidden by the Convention will be permissible.

If it were wished to encourage co-operation between the countries in some way, the Convention might here also be supplemented by a Recommendation pointing out the utility of suchco-operation, without making it the subject of an express provision in the Convention itself, and without infringing the right of each country to direct all operations carried out within its territory.

Monopoly of Recruiting for Authorised Offices and Agents

The International Emigration Commission further states among its esolutions (14 (2)) :

> Recruiting operations should be carried on exclusively through the medium of offices or agents authorised by the competent authorities of the States.

This text is clear and definite : it demands the authorisation of the State for every recruiting office or agent. At the same time it is very wide : it does not specify what offices or agents may be authorised.

This would seem to be very wise. There are no doubt certain countries where it is specified that recruiting for abroad shall be carried out exclusively by some special commission, or by the official employment exchange, or by an emigration department or a private office. Definite regulations of this type may be excellent in the relations between two States. But in view of the extreme variety of the cases met with throughout the world, very great liberty must be left to each State to adopt the forms which seem to it most practical in view of its particular relations.

The essential thing is that the recruiter, whoever he may be, should carry on his work only with the authorisation of and in the conditions laid down by the country in which the recruiting is done.

The Rome Conference expressed the following wish on this subject, which by no means contradicts the formula proposed above but rather supplements it :

> Emigration States *may* decide that recruiting operations can only be carried out by means of employment and emigration offices instituted or supervised by the State.

According to the resolution of the International Emigration Commission (Geneva, 1921), the country of emigration may state what offices or agents shall undertake recruiting. Under a very elastic formula each country is thus left perfectly free to declare that the intermediary shall be the employment exchange or emigration office, or to choose any other intermediary.

But it is in any case essential that this intermediary shall not aim at making profits. A declaration in this sense is contained in the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1926 :

> The Conference requests the International Labour Office to approach the Governments of the countries concerned, in order to request them to take the necessary steps so that the finding of employment for foreign workers may be undertaken solely by public institutions or by organisations not aiming at making profits, operating under the supervision of the public authorities, and after consultation of the employers' and workers' organisations.

And the Havana Conference expressed itself in the same sense in a resolution (III, 4) recommending that :

The recruiting of workers for foreign countries and the placing in employment of alien workers should be carried out either by public bodies or by private organisations *duly authorised* by the Governments and subject to their strict supervision, and that institutions working for profit should be forbidden to engage in such work.

Examination of the State of the Labour Market

Another resolution (14 (3)) of the International Emigration Commission of 1921 states that when collective recruiting takes place care must be taken " that the recruiting does not disturb the labour markets of the two countries ; particularly that the wages should not be less than those paid in the country of immigration and that workers recruited should not arrive on the occasion of strikes or lockouts. "

There are three points in this resolution. In the first place, it demands that the effects of recruiting shall never disturb the labour markets of the two countries. This proposal is closely connected with those studied above. Whether the labour market of either country is disturbed or not can be decided by consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations, by inspection and supervision by the competent national authorities, and by hearing the opinion of the authorised emigration agents. If recruiting has an unfavourable influence on the growth of unemployment, there must be means of stopping it immediately. If the need for work or for labour which recruiting sets out to meet should disappear, the recruiting itself must stop, whatever the desires of the other party may be. This is a principle that most countries have made a special point of when concluding bilateral conventions (cf. in particular : Italy-France, 30 September 1919, section 4 ; Belgium-France, 24 December 1924, section 4 ; Italy-Luxemburg, 11 November 1920, section 3 : France-Czechoslovakia, 20 March 1920, section 9 ; France-Poland, 7 September 1919, section 10).

In order to ensure that in each year recruiting and immigration shall be properly adapted to the needs of the country, and to allow of periodical re-adaptation, the Germano-Polish, Austro-Czechoslovakian, and Austro-Polish Conventions go so far as to prescribe the compulsory return of immigrants to their country of origin at the end of the season.

It may be recalled that the right to interrupt recruiting according to the state of the labour market was also recognised by the Emigration and Immigration Conference held at Rome in 1924, in its resolution III, 7 (5) :

Each emigration or immigration country may prevent the recruiting or the admission of workers to their territory if these foreign workers, whether by reason of their number of temporary conditions, are likely to cause prejudice to the interests of the labouring classes in the immigration and emigration countries.

The Havana Emigration and Immigration Conference also adopted various resolutions to ensure that the two countries concerned should have adequate information with regard to the supply of, and demand for, labour, and insisted on the necessity of taking all possible measures to avoid the serious consequences of an unforeseen flood of migrants. On this point, therefore, there seems to be no discussion.

The resolution of the International Emigration Commission also states that wages must not be less than those paid in the country of immigration. This provision will be examined farther on in connection with the contract of employment, where it seems more appropriate.

Clauses relating to Strikes and Lockouts

Lastly, the 1921 resolution quoted above states that workers recruited should not arrive on the occasion of strikes or lockouts.

This was also among the points considered by the Governments represented at the Rome Conference, where it was agreed that recruiting should not be carried out without a declaration of the employer stating that at the moment there was no strike or lock-out in the undertaking to which the workers were to go. The obvious purpose of this clause is to prevent recruiting which might embitter the relations between the workers of the two countries; it has a pacifying influence which would seem to justify its inclusion in an International Convention. At the same time it must be borne in mind that its inclusion raises delicate questions which may perhaps make ratification difficult for certain countries.

Here again much will depend on the drafting of the provision, which must be done with great care before the time comes for voting on it.

Resolution 15 of the International Emigration Commission, adopted by 5 votes to 4 with 7 abstentions, suggests various measures for applying this provision relating to strikes. It appears somewhat difficult to include such definite formulae in a Draft Convention which is intended to be approved by all the Governments in the world. But care must be taken that nothing hinders

the possibility of arrangements of this kind by bilateral agreements between countries.

Contracts Concluded Abroad

The International Emigration Commission of 1921 further recommended that contracts drawn up in the country of emigration should have full force in the country of immigration, except as regards clauses contrary to public policy. Both parts of this provision seem to be in harmony with the necessities of recruiting and of national and international law.

A reservation for clauses contrary to public policy is essential because the conception of public policy varies at different periods and in different countries, and a labour contract concluded before departure can have no force abroad except so far as allowed by national legislation, which is not always the case.

A similar provision is included in section 16 of the conclusions of the same Commission with regard to deductions from wages. These two clauses will be discussed later in connection with the contract of employment.

Medical and Technical Examinations

The Rome Conference of 1924 laid down a certain number of principles which might usefully be included in an International Convention on recruiting. In particular, resolution III, 7 (4), states :

> The employer may require a medical and technical examination of each worker who asks to be recruited as a condition for employing him.

This clause is the necessary counterpart of the right of the country of emigration to regulate the conditions of recruiting. This country, in *choosing* a worker through its employment exchange, emigration office, or other national institution, may send a man who is entirely unsuited to the country or industry of destination, or may even send someone it wishes to get rid of, who, when dispatched to the foreign employer, cannot be sent back to his country of origin except at great expense. A provision of the kind mentioned above seems likely to avoid abuses and to ensure that the country of immigration shall receive healthy workers and the industrialist competent workers.

The organisation of these examinations, however, is not free

from difficulties. Who, for instance, shall be entitled to carry them out ? At Rome this question gave rise to heated discussions which held the fate of all the resolutions on collective recruiting in suspense. It was finally settled in a sense favourable to the recruiter.

While also demanding occupational selection of emigrants, the Havana Conference does not state who is to carry out the selection. The terms of its recommendation (III, 1) are that :

> An occupational selection of emigrants be organised before their departure from the country of origin so as to reduce to a minimum any conflicts concerning either the occupational qualifications of the emigrants or their occupational skill.

With regard to these questions of tests of occupational ability, the Havana Conference also expressed a wish that every recruited worker should be provided with a special occupational certificate ; this will be dealt with later.

The right of medical and occupational examination is also very clearly asserted in most bilateral treaties, and is in fact exercised in various ways which need not be studied in detail here.

Coercive Measures under Treaties

The International Emigration and Immigration Conference (Rome, 1924) also adopted the following resolution (III, 7 (8)) :

> Obligations contracted by workers under labour contracts shall not give rise in the immigration country to coercive measures or to administrative or judicial penalties not authorised by the general legislation of the country concerning obligations arising out of private contracts.

There would appear to be two provisions in this paragraph. The first, prohibiting coercive measures, apparently refers to the clauses formerly inserted in the contracts of coloured workers authorising imprisonment as a penalty for non-observance of these contracts (indentured labour). Clauses of this kind have practically disappeared in present-day contracts, and there will probably be no great opposition to this abolition being confirmed in the Draft Convention, although this may delay ratification by certain Governments.

The aim of the other provision seems to be to prevent obligations contracted by foreign workers from being subject to " administrative or judicial penalties " not applicable to national workers, that is to say, extraordinary penalties such as the expulsion of foreign

workers for breach of their contract of employment. The consequences of breach of contract are, in fact, regarded in a very different light by the countries of emigration and by those of immigration. While the former insist that there should be only civil penalties for the breaches of contract of which foreign workers exploited by unjust employers are sometimes guilty, the latter complain of the frequency with which contracts are broken by foreigners, who take advantage of their insolvency to break with impunity the engagements they have undertaken, regardless of the fact that these engagements represent a heavy expense for other persons.

In any case it is essential that in all these rather difficult questions the Convention contemplated should take full account of the very definite desire of the countries of immigration to safeguard their sovereign rights in individual agreements that they may conclude with countries of emigration. It may be recalled that the first of the principles on migration adopted by the Sixth Pan-American Conference held at Havana in 1928 stated :

> That the conventions regarding emigration and immigration arrived at between the nations of the American Continent and those of any other Continent can never impose on any American country measures which would free the immigrant from the legislation or jurisdiction of the country in which he settles

Previous Discussion of Contracts between Governments

The resolutions of the Rome Conference concerning recruiting include two paragraphs on this subject (III, 7 (6), and III, 8 (1)) representing respectively the claims of the countries of emigration and of the countries of immigration. The two are in agreement in demanding that labour contracts concluded in connection with collective recruiting should previously be submitted to the Governments concerned.

Resolution 7 (6), which expresses more particularly the wishes of the countries of emigration, states :

> Each country will subordinate its authorisation to recruit in its territory workmen for abroad to the condition that in the labour contracts between the employer and the workman the general conditions of the contract must be indicated. These general conditions should in principle be drawn up by agreement between the authorities of the emigration country and those of the immigration country.

Resolution 8 (1) expresses rather the point of view of the countries of immigration :

> The Conference expresses the wish that individual contracts drawn up on the basis of a standard contract, modelled on or containing provisions specified by the proper authorities of the emigration country, should only be valid in the immigration country if the clauses so stipulated have been established in agreement with the proper authorities of the latter country. . . .

It will be seen that these measures are in complete agreement : the contracts proposed by the country of immigration must be approved by the Government of the country of emigration ; the contracts drawn up by the country of emigration must receive the approval of the authorities of the immigration country.

Occupational Certificates

The Havana Conference discussed at length and finally approved a resolution (III, 8) expressing the wish :

> That a certificate issued by the competent authority of the country of origin and forming part of the passport, or in the form of a special document, should be adopted, containing in particular information concerning the general moral conduct and occupational activity of the emigrant during a certain period of time before his embarkation.

It would seem that a certificate of this kind could often render real service. But it is connected rather with the conditions of departure and transport, which are not within the scope of the Draft Convention discussed here, and it therefore seems difficult, despite the interest of the question, to adopt a clause to this effect without raising the whole question of identity papers, which is indisputably outside the scope of the present study.

Special Officials

In connection with bilateral labour conventions and regulations on the subject of recruiting, it should be specially mentioned that in addition to the clauses already mentioned these conventions often contain a great number of special provisions instituting special missions, establishing emigration and immigration attachés, appointing conductors of emigrants, creating guardians and protectors for emigrants in non-European countries, and defining the

duties of directors of employment exchanges, emigration and immigration inspectors and commissioners, heads of frontier offices, and numerous other officials.

These are special provisions, of undoubted utility in certain bilateral relations or for certain countries. But if it is considered necessary to mention them in a multilateral Convention, then any text proposed will have to be wide enough to cover all these officials or organisations, whose work is frequently excellent but which it seems difficult to describe in much detail in a world-wide Convention.

(To be continued.)

The Financial Problems of Unemployment Insurance

by

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Although unemployment insurance is gradually losing the essentially empirical and provisional character that marked its early stages, and is being placed on an increasingly scientific and permanent basis, its financial organisation is still rather unsettled and continues to raise numerous problems. The question is discussed here by Dr. Forchheimer, who puts forward solutions which have behind them the weight of experiments carried out in his own country, in which he has himself had an important share. Opinions may very possibly differ as to whether these solutions would be accepted as satisfactory in most other countries, but this does not affect the interest of the present article, which its readers will certainly consider an important contribution to the scientific study of the question.

SINCE the beginning of the present century, economists and sociologists have devoted great attention to the problems connected with unemployment insurance. There have been long discussions concerning the economic importance of this branch of insurance, the forms in which it can be carried out, and the important questions that it raises in the realm of social policy (application in case of strikes or lockouts, compulsion for the unemployed person to accept employment in some occupation other than his own, etc.). It cannot be denied that these discussions have led to valuable results, and that the theorists were able to supply the administrator with definite proposals for the solution of the problem when, after the war, unemployment insurance was established or considerably extended in all the industrial countries of Europe. During this period the economists and sociologists in every country supported this new social institution and aimed particularly at extending the circle of beneficiaries as widely as possible. The solutions which had previously been evolved were improved and their adoption

generally recommended. The question of the financial system of unemployment insurance, on the contrary, has attracted far less interest. The general tendency has been merely to distribute the responsibility for the cost more or less uniformly between the various categories concerned (public authorities, employers and workers), and there have been scarcely any further special conditions imposed regarding the system of contributions.[1]

At the present moment, however, the question of the administrative and financial organisation of unemployment insurance is one of the most important problems of social policy. There is still a widespread idea that public insurance against unemployment, arising from the necessities and disturbances of the post-war period, is an institution suited only to periods of depression. One important task of social policy, then, is to stabilise this institution and definitely fix its relations with the general administration of the country and the other branches of social insurance, and more especially to adapt it as closely as possible to the needs of the economic system.

At the beginning the administrators of unemployment insurance had very little time to devote to financial problems ; the abnormal period of economic depression after the war demanded that immediate steps should be taken. In most cases the public authorities took action, and when they did not wish to draw on the public funds they introduced some rudimentary system of contributions. In this respect unemployment insurance is clearly distinguished from other branches of social insurance, for the introduction of which actuarial mathematics had carefully paved the way. The time has now come when unemployment insurance must also be put on a more scientific financial basis.

The plan of this article is as follows. The first two sections deal with the equalisation of risks in time and in space ; the third deals with the financial basis of relief in periods of depression ; the fourth with the financial participation of the State and other

[1] A resolution adopted in 1927 by the International Association for Social Progress deals with the following points: introduction of compulsory unemployment insurance; extension of this obligation to all wage earners, including seasonal workers, those intermittently unemployed, and aliens; the obligation to accept suitable employment; unemployment resulting from a collective dispute; questions of organisation (relations with the problem of finding employment and with other branches of social insurance; collaboration on equal terms between representatives of workers and employers); rate of benefits and period during which they may be drawn. From the financial point of view, the only question that this resolution attempts to solve is that of the unification of risk in all occupations; it also recommends in general terms that the cost of unemployment insurance should be shared by the public authorities, the employers, and the workers.

public authorities. Finally, the fifth and last section contains an examination of the question of the choice of the institution which is to administer unemployment insurance.

Equalisation of Risks in Time

Generally speaking there are two recognised systems of contributions for social insurance. If the period for the payment of benefits is short, as in sickness insurance, the system of annual distribution of costs is used; the contributions collected each year must cover the expenses for the same period. In order to guard against contingencies a reserve fund is set up (in the case of sickness insurance these reserves are small) and the experience of a few years generally suffices for fixing an invariable rate of contribution.

A more complicated system, however, is required in those branches of insurance in which the benefits are spread over a long period, that is to say, in pension insurance (in particular invalidity and old-age insurance, and, in many cases, accident insurance also). In the early days the financial arrangement adopted for this type of insurance generally consisted in a system of capitalisation. At a later date this system was abandoned as a result of various circumstances, among which special reference should be made to depreciation of the currency and the post-war economic depression. It was replaced by a financial system very like the system of annual distribution of costs, but it was found that pension insurance required much larger reserves than the branches of insurance which had to pay benefits for short periods only (such as sickness insurance).

In the case of unemployment insurance, the problem of financial organisation was solved in the following way. At the start it was rightly considered that since unemployment insurance had to guarantee benefits for short periods its financial system should be based on the principle of annual distribution of costs. The contributions were therefore calculated so as to cover approximately the actual annual requirements.

As no one had any experience of the entirely new post-war conditions, the first year was naturally taken as a basis for calculating the cost. Later on the contributions were reduced or increased according as the situation improved or got worse. This method, however, had various disadvantages which very soon became obvious. In particular, it was necessary to revise the

rates very frequently; it even happened that they had to be adjusted several times in the course of one year. These continuous changes made matters very difficult for those employers who reckon their insurance contributions in calculating the cost of production.

Another very serious disadvantage which must be kept in mind is that under this system the bad years are just the ones in which the financial cost of insurance is particularly high, and the contributions have consequently to be increased. It has been pointed out with great justice that such a method must inevitably tend to aggravate depressions.

The mistake lay in imagining that the financial system of unemployment insurance could be based on the data for any one year. It was not sufficiently realised that one of the chief difficulties of unemployment insurance lies in the extremely wide variations in the cost. The position is entirely different in sickness insurance, where the obligations are more or less fixed, because in very exceptional circumstances (e.g. during an epidemic) the increase in the annual cost of sickness insurance does not exceed fifty per cent. In unemployment insurance the cost depends primarily on the number of unemployed, which varies continually and widely. The experience of recent years has shown variations in the number of unemployed as great as a thousand per cent. between two years, both falling within a very short period.[1]

It is well known that the labour market is subject to two kinds of periodic fluctuations. There are first of all the so-called seasonal changes which recur every year. The number of unemployed is always much higher during the winter months than during the summer months, and the cost of unemployment insurance naturally varies in the same proportion. Seasonal fluctuations cannot be determined exactly in advance, but they do not present any serious difficulty; they must merely be kept in mind when fixing the amount of the annual cost. The second kind is the fluctuations resulting from the business cycle. Observations spread over several decades have shown an unbroken

[1] In order to gain an idea of the fluctuations in the number of unemployed persons and the consequent variations in the cost of unemployment insurance, cf., for Great Britain, INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Unemployment Insurance: A Study in Comparative Legislation* (Studies and Reports, Series C (Unemployment), No. 10), p. 102; for Italy, "Unemployment Insurance in Italy from 1920 to 1925", in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVI, No. 4, Oct. 1927, pp. 537-538. In Austria, the average number of unemployed was approximately 147,000 in 1919, 11,700 in 1921, and 177,100 in 1926 and 1927.

sequence of periods of depression, recovery, boom, and crisis, forming a business cycle, which before the war lasted from seven to ten years. Since the war the business cycle has been considerably changed. Certain countries have suffered from prolonged periods of depression, during which there have been only slight temporary improvements on the labour market, while other countries have had only very brief fluctuations. It is generally admitted that the regular cycle, as it was known before the war, is tending to reappear or has already done so, but it is quite possible that its average duration may have changed. The exhaustive studies that are now in progress in every country will provide information on this point.

Whatever the future situation may be, there is one principle that cannot be affected by it; *the contributions for unemployment insurance must be calculated so as to enable the system of distribution of costs to cover expenses during the whole of a business cycle*; the good years must provide sufficient reserves for periods of depression.[1]

An obvious objection to this theory is that it is very difficult to calculate in advance the average annual cost of insurance during a business cycle. Even assuming that the periodical return of the cycle may be counted upon, its duration, the intensity of the depression, and the proportion of the various phases (depression, recovery, boom, and crisis) in the whole period cannot be foreseen and are so many elements which admit of a considerable degree of variation.

It must not, however, be concluded that the idea of stabilising the finances of unemployment insurance must therefore be definitely renounced. Even here certain probabilities may be reckoned upon, but the chances of error are particularly high and the remedy for these possible errors cannot in any case be found in a continual readjustment of the rates of contribution: it must be sought outside the system of contributions. Here prime consideration must be given to the intervention of the public authorities, and in particular of the State, during periods of depression, a point which will be discussed later.

Theoretically speaking, it may be added that apart from seasonal variations and cyclical fluctuations recurring at regular

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[1] The Unemployment Insurance Committee for Great Britain appointed in 1925 arrived at similar conclusions. Cf. "The Report of the Unemployment Insurance Committee in Great Britain", in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVI, No. 2, Aug. 1927, p. 247. The present writer, however, is of the opinion that this principle has never been adopted in any legislation.

intervals, the labour market is also subject to very extensive variations produced by phenomena of different kinds, such as the work of the elements, war, political complications, or far-reaching or sudden changes in the economic structure of a country. It is equally impossible to invent a system of contributions which will meet eventualities of this type. Here again, the remedy must be sought outside the system of contributions.

In theory it is difficult to deny the principle laid down above. Its application, on the contrary, meets with a certain number of obstacles, which are frequently explained by the theoretical objection that cyclical fluctuations cannot be estimated in advance (we have seen above that it must not be concluded that all idea of a previous estimate must be given up). In reality, however, the causes of these difficulties must be sought elsewhere. In most cases unemployment insurance was established, or at least considerably extended, at a period when the position of the labour market was extremely unfavourable and when it was clearly impossible to build up reserves for bad periods. There was therefore no hesitation in adopting the only solution possible at the time, which was to apply to the State for the necessary funds, either as a contribution or as a loan. When the conditions of the labour market improved and the cost of unemployment insurance grew less, the representatives of the persons concerned and public opinion constantly demanded a reduction in the contributions. In their opinion it was unnecessary to set up a reserve fund, because in case of necessity the State could come to the rescue. It will be readily agreed that this solution could not be made the basis of a system and that considerable reserves are necessary if unemployment insurance is to work properly.

The financial basis of this insurance must therefore be a system of contributions allowing an invariable rate to be fixed over a long period on the average of good and bad years. This system allows the State to intervene only when the average rate proves insufficient. In calculating this rate particular attention must be paid to the probable future course of economic events; but as charges imposed by this method may be so large as to be prejudicial to industry, it is sometimes provided that the contributions may not exceed a certain limit, fixed by law, the surplus being provided by the State as a loan or as a non-repayable grant. This question will be taken up again later on.

In any case, the greatest importance, both from the point of view of financial organisation and for reasons of social policy,

must be attached to the stabilisation of contributions. If this is not achieved, there is continual conflict between the needs of unemployment insurance and those of the national economy, so that the insurance system becomes a permanent possible cause of economic perturbations.

Equalisation of Risks in Space

The preceding section dealt with the question of the equalisation of risks in time, which is the most important financial problem in unemployment insurance. This section will deal with various questions concerned with equalisation in space. Although these questions are much less important, they have nevertheless left their traces in legislation, and it cannot be denied that they also form a problem.

It can be readily understood that the equalisation of the very varying risks of unemployment insurance demands as extensive a field of application as possible. Since the adoption of a scheme for an international insurance organisation or for international re-insurance is still in the distant future, the formula of unemployment insurance covering every branch of national activity must be accepted for the time being. It is true that this idea has not been accepted everywhere, and that in certain legislations provisions are still to be found which grant particular industries the right to insure outside the national system. It is generally the Government, however, which is entitled to grant the necessary authorisation, and, if the present writer is not mistaken, these provisions are applied only in very exceptional cases.[1]

Even in practice, however, the idea of providing for a certain amount of local differentiation within the framework of the general insurance system is very generally accepted. The first argument in favour of these differences is that they allow the funds at the disposal of the insurance institution to be more economically managed and more rationally employed. It is also asserted that the method of constituting a common fund, on which everyone draws, has several disadvantages. In point of fact, this objection is not without justification. It must be remembered that the

[1] The British Unemployment Insurance Committee appointed in 1925 reported unfavourably on the freedom granted to industries to set up special systems of insurance. This decision, however, has met with a certain amount of opposition. Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVI, No. 2, Aug. 1927, p. 249.

granting of benefits to unemployed persons is entrusted to a large number of local committees. Anyone who has had occasion to study this matter knows that in the distribution of benefits the wish to secure for one's own municipality as much as possible of the large insurance funds plays a considerable part. This wish may be stronger than all the principles of good financial management. In practice, this objection is particularly important when the distribution of benefits is left largely to the discretion of the local committees. This aspect of the problem will be dealt with later.

This practical argument is corroborated by various considerations which must not be under-estimated. A long-period study of the labour market and the various spheres of activity of a nation will show that the situation varies considerably in different regions. In certain parts of the country the percentage of unemployed is relatively low, while in others (especially the large towns and highly industrialised districts) there is a considerable reserve of industrial workers, which is probably necessary in such districts. The result is that the insurance system always covers both very active regions (the term we shall use here for regions with very little unemployment) and others which we shall call passive, i.e. where unemployment is generally higher than the average for the whole country. It would be a mistake to suppose that in the long run these differences must balance each other as a result of changes in the regional distribution of the unemployed, for the active or passive character of each district depends on its economic structure. This problem may be considered from various points of view, but there is no doubt that it plays quite an important part in districts that have a certain degree of historical and political independence. The principle of pooling risks may therefore easily be considered an injustice in municipalities which are constantly required to pay for the others. While this idea may be combated by numerous general and particular arguments, it nevertheless contains a certain amount of truth, and it can readily be understood that the practice of certain States includes some local differentiation.

In Germany these differences can be explained primarily by historical considerations. Unemployment insurance was undertaken first of all by the municipalities, and was subsequently handed over to the Federal Government. The result is that equalisation of risks in space, and the local differentiation by means of which this is achieved, go back to a period when the

contributions of the workers and the employers were utilised merely to complete the resources of the poor relief system. It is remarkable, however, that this idea should have been retained in the Unemployment Insurance Act of 1927, which otherwise is based entirely on the principle of centralisation of employment agencies and unemployment insurance. The theory lying behind this idea is that very active regions should be able to apply, within limits, an autonomous policy of contributions. They are, however, obliged to hand over a percentage of these contributions to cover the deficit in passive regions (hence the expression " equalisation in space "), but this percentage represents a fixed average. The contribution thus contains one part which goes to the central fund (*Reichsanteil des Beitrages*) and another which remains for the district. When a district declines any subsidy — i.e. when it enjoys a permanent state of activity — its rate of contribution may be freely fixed within certain limits. These autonomous districts may include the wide sphere of activity of the Employment Office of one of the Federal States (*Landesarbeitsamt*), within which certain areas having a local employment exchange (*Arbeitsamt*) may themselves preserve a certain degree of autonomy. In order to avoid the accumulation of too large reserves in certain areas, half the surplus must be paid into the central fund. It is to be noted that in a period of depression these local differences are not permitted ; for this reason they are at present suspended, and, in fact, have not yet been applied since the introduction of unemployment insurance.

In Austria also a system of local differentiation of contributions has been introduced for similar reasons, and in particular in order to grant a certain independence and a certain share of responsibility to the local administrative authorities, who play a very important part in unemployment relief. In this country, however, the history of unemployment insurance was different. In the early stages the State was responsible for all relief in case of unemployment. The idea of local differentiation of contributions arose much later, when the normal allowances for unemployment (i.e. unemployment insurance benefits properly speaking), the cost of which is distributed over the whole national economic system, was completed by measures intended to cope with periods of depression. Relief during periods of depression does not strictly speaking constitute a right ; it is intended primarily for specially necessitous unemployed persons who have no other means of subsistence. It follows that its distribution among the unemployed is to some extent a matter

of discretion, and in particular that the circle of specially necessitous unemployed persons may be more or less widely extended or restricted. It was considered, therefore, that it would be well to make the joint bodies to which the administration of this type of relief was entrusted at least partially responsible for collecting the funds. Half the expenses are borne by the public authorities (Federal and Provincial Governments) and the other half by contributions at a rate fixed for each province (sphere of jurisdiction of a district industrial committee). In point of fact, the amount of these contributions varies to an extraordinary degree ; in certain provinces they represent 1 per cent. of the sickness insurance contribution, and in others 50 per cent. It is certain that these divergencies cannot be explained solely by the manner in which the available funds are managed ; they must be partly attributed to differences in the economic structure of each region.

There is no doubt that this method of fixing the contributions has resulted in an increased interest on the part of the joint committees in the financial management of the insurance they have to administer. It has also put an end to the complaints of certain very active areas, which formerly protested that they had to pay high contributions in order to meet the deficit of other districts.[1]

Local differentiation of the contributions may, on the other hand, give rise to an objection which cannot be overlooked ; it is due to the movements of workers from one region to another. It can frequently happen that a worker pays contributions in one region in which he is living, whereas he is working and may later on become unemployed in another district, where he claims his rights. As a result, certain areas always appear active, while in reality they are not, but it is difficult to determine where the error lies. It is perfectly clear that any system of regulations under which every worker was insured only in a very limited area would restrict the mobility of the labour supply.

Although certain considerations seem to make local differentiation undesirable, it is nevertheless certain that there are practical advantages in a method that grants a certain power in fixing contributions to the local organisations that have to distribute the benefits. In the present writer's opinion, however, this idea

[1] Local differentiation of contributions, which is a survival of the period when regional insurance funds existed, is also found in Italy. On this subject, cf. Dr. Campese's report summarised in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVI, No. 4, Oct. 1927, p. 539.

should not be applied to insurance properly so called ; the principle of insurance guarantees to the unemployed a very definite right, and doubtful cases should be settled by an arbitration decision based on legal, and not economic, grounds. When relief, on the contrary, is the primary consideration, the centralisation of responsibility can be more easily understood.

Local independence should not be applied either to the establishment of numerous reserve funds. If there are too many of these funds, the amount of capital withdrawn from industry is too high ; there are also risks in the investment and use of these funds. In any circumstances, therefore, centralised control of these reserves is to be recommended.

The Financial Basis of Relief during Periods of Depression

Under all unemployment insurance systems, the duration of the risk insured is limited. The provisions regarding this limitation vary considerably in detail, but the aim of all is that unemployment relief shall not be granted for more than a given number of weeks every year. These limitations are found in the various systems of national unemployment insurance, as well as in the so-called " Ghent systems ", and before the introduction of these systems it was found also in the rules of trade unions which granted unemployment relief.

Since the economic depression of recent years, however, it has no longer been possible to assert that a person able and anxious to work must necessarily find employment within a period of a few months ; it has been found, on the contrary, that certain categories of workers were quite unable to do so even after six months. During this period all limits for the payment of compensation have been suppressed[1], thus giving rise to the idea of emergency relief during bad depressions. In the majority of States relief of this kind was introduced provisionally under pressure of circumstances, and has frequently consisted merely in suspending the time limits. A more careful study of the problem, however, leads to the conclusion that phenomena of this kind may recur

[1] The *International Labour Review* for December 1927 (Vol. XVI, No. 6) contained an article by Dr. Fritz Rager giving an outline of the steps taken in various States to deal with periods of depression (" Provision for Prolonged Unemployment in Certain Industrial States "). Cf. also *Rundschau der Arbeit*, 6th year, No. 1, 1928, and the study *Unemployment Insurance* published by the International Labour Office (Studies and Reports, Series C, No. 10).

frequently, and that it is therefore necessary to find a general solution.

From the financial point of view, which is the only one under consideration here, the question to be answered is whether the cost of relief during periods of depression should be covered in the same way as the cost of unemployment insurance.

Before examining the differences between unemployment insurance and emergency relief, the reasons which have led to the adoption of these different methods must be analysed.

It should be recalled first of all that any sound insurance system must be limited to the risk as originally determined. To abandon this fundamental principle, even for a short period, amounts to a rejection of the whole system. An insurance which covers the risk of unemployment without a time limit may be theoretically conceivable, but in practice it is not possible. It must in fact be realised that this is a form of public relief which is closely connected with unemployment insurance for technical and administrative reasons, and on psychological grounds, but is widely removed from it in its essence.

From the financial point of view, the fundamental question here is whether the chief part in relief work should not be taken by the public authorities. This is the solution adopted in Germany, where, according to the law, the cost of relief during periods of depression is borne as to four-fifths by the Reich and as to one-fifth by the municipalities.

The solution which makes the State bear the whole cost of emergency relief is based on the idea that these prolonged periods of depression go beyond the bounds of the normal cyclical fluctuations of the economic system, and that they result from circumstances for which the State is primarily responsible, such as war, currency disasters, etc. This view is not entirely satisfactory. Experience has shown that a normal business cycle may also have very great depressions lasting considerably longer than a year, during which a great number of workers remain unemployed for more than six months. Logically speaking, industry ought to employ its reserves to meet those exceptional depressions, as it does to meet the cyclical depressions of the labour market. The conclusion of this argument is that the cost of relief should be divided between industry and the public authorities.

There is a second argument which must also be taken into account. In the case of very prolonged periods of depression, a large proportion of the unemployed exhaust their right to benefit,

and are transferred from the insurance system to the relief system, so that the cost of insurance tends to diminish, while the depression remains the same. Some of these unemployed became a charge on the public relief system during these depressions, others on other relief institutions. That part of the cost of which the insurance system is relieved is therefore not invariable, but, on the contrary, increases steadily.

We have consequently two arguments, one practical, the other theoretical, in favour of the method of sharing the cost of relief during periods of depression between the industry of the country and the public authorities instead of making the latter entirely responsible.

The next question is whether this cost should be distributed equally over the whole territory of the country, or if it would not be better to consider first certain local factors. This question takes two forms, according as we consider the contribution of the public authorities or that of the industry of the country.

In favour of the idea of a uniform distribution over the whole country, it can be argued that it is the State that can most easily support this burden, and that many depressions are the result of measures for which the State is responsible. This point of view carries considerable weight in the case of the present depression. Against this must be set off the fact that relief has always been considered as within the domain of the autonomous local authorities. Poor relief, which is administered by the municipalities, is certainly considerably lightened by emergency relief ; further, the principle of interesting the local authorities in all relief measures is thoroughly sound.

The same question also arises in considering the share which industry is to bear in the cost of emergency relief. It is true that this aspect of the problem also raises other considerations. It must be remembered in the first place that the industry of the country should bear only part of the cost, and that its contribution must be kept separate from the normal insurance contribution, which we suppose fixed according to the system mentioned in the first section of this article. If this idea is accepted, the simplest method — or, at least, that in which the burden of emergency relief is least felt — is to collect a uniform supplement from the whole country. For reasons mentioned in the second section, however, it may be desirable to vary the amount of the contributions in different localities in order to increase the element of responsibility in the disposal of the funds.

The solution here advocated is therefore the distribution of the cost of emergency relief in various quarters. In support of this idea, it may be argued that this type of relief comes half-way between social insurance and poor relief, and consequently appears in a very complex form. It may also be pointed out that, while wholly comprehensible on grounds of social policy, the excessive extension of this institution raises objections which outweigh all considerations of social policy, and that it is therefore desirable to assign a share in financing it to the greatest possible number of factors. It is certain that the State must take the first place; in the case of a Federal State, the functions of the Federal Government and those of the separate States will need to be very carefully defined. At the same time there is no doubt that the municipalities and the industry of the country should also take part, and that the principles of the autonomy and responsibilty of the local authorities should be widely applied.[1]

The Participation of the State

This consideration of the financial problem of unemployment insurance from different points of view may be followed by a discussion of the most debatable question, namely, the degree to which the State should participate in bearing the cost of the insurance. It is generally recognised that the responsibility for the cost of insurance must be borne partly by the public authorities and not assumed entirely by the employers and workers. In support of this theory it is pointed out with justice that the decisions of the public authorities frequently help to bring about or to aggravate economic depressions. But as there is no definite criterion by which to judge their degree of responsibility[2], theorists, and at first many practical administrators also, settled the question by deciding that the contribution of the public authorities ought to be approximately equal to that of the other two groups concerned. We shall examine this question from the theoretical and practical points of view.

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[1] In Belgium there is a National Emergency Fund to provide for unemployed persons who, under the rules of the unemployment funds, have exhausted their right to benefit. According to the law, this Fund is financed from various sources, but in reality most of its resources come from the State. The provinces and municipalities do, however, contribute a certain amount. Cf. "The Belgian Emergency Fund", in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 6, June 1927, pp. 908-915.

[2] Cf. K. Pribram: "Die Verteilung der finanziellen Lasten in der Sozialversicherung", in *Festgabe für Georg Schanz*, Vol. I. Tübingen, 1928.

In the first place, it may be laid down as a general principle that the industry of a country must be in a position to meet cyclical business fluctuations. Those who benefit by periods of prosperity must also bear the cost of bad years. The idea has even found support that the risk of unemployment should be borne entirely by the employers; various authors have expressed the opinion that this method would induce industrialists to stabilise employment and would help to mitigate depressions. It would be a waste of time to refute this theory, which, after all, has not had many adherents. On the contrary, it may be readily granted that the attention of the leaders of industry should always be drawn to this aspect of the problem, and that constant appeals should be made to their sense of responsibility. The usual method of dividing the contributions between the employers and the workers has its origin in the fact that this is a branch of social insurance in the wide sense of the term. It would indeed be impossible to administer it without the collaboration of the working class.

It can easily be seen, however, that the State may be held responsible for periods of depression the cause of which is outside the cyclical fluctuations. The fact that its participation is in the form of a fixed contribution (fixed contribution for unemployment relief, etc.) is probably due to the fact that it is practically impossible to determine its share in the responsibility.

The oretically it would be much more in harmony with the fundamental idea of State responsibility to adopt the principle that fluctuations not exceeding a certain range are generally connected with the business cycle, while abnormal depressions are to be explained, in part at least, by disturbances of a different order.

From the practical point of view this idea also leads to better solutions. By making the State responsible for a definite part of the contributions, the question who is to come to the rescue when the employers' and workers' contributions are not sufficient to cover their share of the cost is left unsolved. This method is not likely to facilitate the stabilisation of contributions. Looking at the matter from the point of view of the State, it can also be seen that this system of contributions raises certain difficulties, since the State is obliged in its annual budget to provide for an ordinary expenditure, the amount of which it is almost impossible to determine in advance.

It therefore seems much more practical to provide in the first place for State participation in the cost of abnormal periods of

depression. As has been mentioned in the preceding section, this participation may take one of two forms. Firstly, the State may step in when the fixed contribution of the persons concerned is insufficient to cover the unemployment insurance benefits; secondly, it may contribute towards the cost of emergency allowances.[1]

With regard to State participation in the first of these forms, it may be observed, in the first place, that it is quite in harmony with the idea of insurance for the State to cover deficits by means of advances, i.e. for its expenditure to be repaid when the economic situation improves. This solution is particularly suitable when an insurance scheme comes into force during a period of depression and therefore has no reserves. It is evident that certain other elements must be taken into account when discussing the distribution of the cost between the State and industry. It may very well happen that one or other of these two factors must temporarily be allowed to practise economy, and political circumstances must also be taken into account. It has already been pointed out in the first section that in order to allow for this possibility a certain margin is left when fixing the maximum contribution demanded from industry. Under this system the State bears the main cost of any depression beyond a certain magnitude. The law may easily allow for the necessary conclusions to be drawn from any particular case and use these as a basis for settling the repayment of advances.

With reference to State participation in the cost of emergency relief, the theory was maintained in the third section that this burden should not be borne entirely by the public authorities. In practice this solution allows of innumerable combinations.

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[1] Austria, Germany, and Italy have abandoned the principle of distributing the cost between employers, workers, and the State in favour of distribution between employers and workers. In these countries the State and the public authorities intervene only when the contributions are insufficient; in Austria and Germany they also bear the cost of emergency relief.

British legislation has maintained the principle of tripartite distribution; the proportion of the cost of insurance to be paid by each group is fixed in advance and is practically the same for all three.

On the question whether the cost of unemployment insurance should be borne solely by the employers and the workers or whether the State should contribute, reference may be made in particular to the discussion by the Dutch Association of Municipal Unemployment Insurance Funds (*Vereeniging van Gemeentelijke Werkloosheidsfondsen*); cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 2, Feb. 1926, pp. 248-252: "Unemployment Insurance and the Problem of the Unification of Social Insurance in the Netherlands", which gives a summary of the statements made by Mr. A. C. De Bruyn and Dr. J. G. van Hettinga Tromp, and the subsequent discussions.

When public opinion makes it possible for the municipalities to participate in unemployment insurance, emergency relief, considered as an extension of poor relief, gives an opportunity for this.

Returning to a remark made already, the objection may obviously be made that for budgetary reasons State participation in emergency relief raises difficulties at least as great as does its regular participation in unemployment insurance. There is no denying the justice of this argument. At the same time, this form of participation at least allows the ordinary State budget to be relieved of an extraordinary item of expenditure. Indeed, the covering of extraordinary charges arising from periods of depression, the question, that is, whether the necessary reserves should or should not appear in the budget and whether this charge should be provided for by present or future taxation, seems to form a special financial problem. This question is also connected with the general problem of stabilisation. It would seem certain that it cannot be solved by any magic formula but will necessitate serious measures of due foresight in every domain of the economic system.

The Choice of the Insurance Institution

A review of the results obtained so far, setting aside solutions which are mainly of importance from the political point of view, such as the extent of State participation or local differentiation, will show two problems in the foreground : firstly, the separation of the risk due to normal economic fluctuations from that due to extraordinary depressions ; and secondly, the stabilisation of contributions. The careful observer, however, will notice immediately that these special problems conceal a more important one which has to be met by all economic undertakings, but is of particular importance and seriousness in connection with unemployment insurance, namely, the constitution of *reserves*.

Certain questions have already been examined here : the amount of the reserves (this is bound up with the stabilisation of contributions within the limits of the business cycle) ; the unity and multiplicity of the reserves (the disadvantages of scattered funds have been pointed out) ; and the question whether the cost of abnormal depressions should also be covered by means of reserves or by the intervention of other factors (the proposed solution is to call in as many factors as possible).

In addition to these questions, there is another which is closely bound up with them, namely, the choice of the insurance institution.

This question may be answered by saying that insurance is to be entrusted to that organisation which has reserves at its disposal and which alone can guarantee that benefits shall always be paid.

The fact that when reserves are insufficient the State has in general undertaken to act as carrier of insurance may be attributed to a similar idea. When this idea has not been adopted the system inevitably shows certain lacunae. It is probably here that the weaknesses of the Ghent system must primarily be sought. Even in countries which have not introduced this system, however, there is a very natural tendency to free unemployment insurance from State control and give it complete administrative autonomy. In this sphere the most definite progress has been made by Germany with its Federal Institute for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance (*Reichsanstalt für Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung*). The fundamental problem for the would-be creators of autonomous unemployment insurance institutions is always the constitution of sufficient reserves.

This leads us to the last problem in this connection, namely, the incorporation of unemployment insurance in a general system of social insurance. A whole series of difficult questions which have been discussed above are automatically solved if the carrier of insurance is a large central organisation dealing with all the branches of social insurance. It may be noted incidentally that this solution also simplifies a number of administrative and technical problems (collection of a single contribution ; relation between social insurance pensions, sickness benefit, and unemployment benefit ; joint supervision by employers and workers ; prevention of abuses, etc.). The only question still remaining to be solved is that of the relations between the employment exchange system and this central body. Even here, however, a solution may be found which will allow the employment exchanges to maintain their independence and will take account of their special needs.[1]

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[1] Cf. Joseph L. COHEN : " The Administrative Machinery of Social Insurance ", in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XI, No. 4, April 1925, pp. 474-508. In this article Mr. Cohen advocates the unification of social insurance and proposes to entrust all the work connected with this insurance to the employment exchanges. The form in which his proposal is put forward is probably due to the fact that he has in mind chiefly the organisation of social insurance in Great Britain. Great Britain, indeed, has a complete network of employment exchanges, supervised by the State, and their organisation is superior to that of the other branches of social insurance. In principle, however, the work of social insurance should not be entrusted to employment exchanges. In Austria, for instance, social insurance is entrusted entirely to large institutions (there is one for workers and another for salaried employees), which are based chiefly on an institution of approved

With regard to the formation of reserves, which is here the main point under consideration, this new solution offers one important advantage. The first section of this article referred to the reasons, well known to every actuary, why pension insurance always requires a very large reserve fund, the purpose of which is quite different from that of the reserve fund for unemployment insurance. By pension insurance is meant, in the first place, old-age and invalidity insurance, but also, to a certain extent, accident insurance. These reserves must grow progressively for a certain number of years from the founding of the insurance institution until they reach a sufficient level. They must be several times the amount of a year's expenditure, even in the case of a system which is not based on the capitalisation principle. Calculations made in Austria have proved that in applying a system of stabilised contributions the reserves for old-age and invalidity insurance provide a sufficient security reserve for unemployment insurance also. In spite of the serious depression on the labour market, the soundness of invalidity insurance runs no risk of being shaken by the calls so made upon it. If unforeseen catastrophes occur to upset all these calculations and if the reserves are used up and cannot or ought not to be reconstituted by increasing the unemployment insurance contributions, there is always the possibility of an appeal to the State. As long, however, as no such catastrophes occur, the State is thus free from all obligation to set up a security reserve fund.

In the narrower domain under consideration here the advantages of this method are equally striking. The constitution of a common fund in any case allows a certain economy in the reserves; only the absolutely necessary sums are withdrawn from the industry of the country. Moreover, the investment and administration of the reserve funds may be carried out on a uniform basis.

As has just been pointed out, the State retains the responsibility for abnormal depressions, and during normal depressions it bears part of the cost of emergency relief.

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stability, the Sickness Insurance Institute. If unemployment insurance were also to be entrusted to these two bodies (the question has not yet been definitely settled), a solution would have to be found for the problem of which body is to be responsible for managing the employment exchanges. The present writer is of the opinion that placing cannot be considered as a complement to social insurance (or to unemployment insurance); the employment exchanges carry out independent and highly important duties in the national economic system, since they have to distribute the supply of labour and keep industry provided with it. Would this problem not arise in Great Britain also?

The preceding considerations are based primarily on information regarding Austria and Germany. But it may be taken that the problems dealt with are very similar in every country, although the present writer is convinced that differences in the economic structure and the mental outlook of the various nations may lead to different solutions. The fact that the solutions adopted in Austria have been advocated several times in this article does not imply any lack of appreciation of those evolved in other countries. Even in considering the question from an international point of view, a writer's preference may be given to schemes of which he has had practical experience. It must be borne in mind also that Austria has suffered from a particularly serious and prolonged period of unemployment and that industry as well as the finances of the State and of the other public authorities have passed through such a serious crisis that every aspect of the financial problem has had to be thoroughly examined.

This study will have fulfilled its purpose if it helps to raise an international discussion on the question of the relations between the financial problems of unemployment insurance and certain general problems of social policy, particularly that of economic stabilisation.

The Employment of Women in Japanese Industry : III

by

Iwao F. Ayusawa, Ph.D.

The first two parts of this article[1] *contained a statistical survey of the position of women in Japanese industry (including mining), and a description of conditions of employment (hours of work, overtime, night work, rest periods and holidays, wages) and the relevant legislation. The third and final part, given below, deals with hygiene and safety, maternity protection, and in particular the dormitory system. This last is a specially interesting feature of factory life in Japan, arising out of the rapid growth of industry and the prevalence of night work, combined with the difficulties of maintaining an adequate labour supply and the insufficient development of means of transport to meet the needs of the factories in this respect.*

Hygiene and Safety

Legislation

Hygiene and safety for women (and young workers) may be considered the points chiefly emphasised in the protective labour laws for Japanese factories and mines. This is illustrated by the provision of the Factory Act that the Act applies not only to factories where ten or more persons are regularly employed, but also to all places where the work performed is dangerous or injurious to health, regardless of the number of workers employed.

The revised Factory Act (section 9) and the Mining Regulations[2] (section 12) prohibit the employment of women (and young workers under 16 years of age[3]) to clean, oil, examine, or repair the dangerous parts of any machinery or transmission apparatus in

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIX, No. 2, Feb. 1929, pp. 193-204; No. 3, March, pp. 385-401.

[2] *Legislative Series*, 1926, Jap. 2 (B).

[3] The limit is 15 years of age until 1 July 1929.

motion, or to put on or take off the driving belts or ropes of any machinery or transmission apparatus in motion, or to perform any other dangerous work. Mine owners are also prohibited from employing women on dangerous or heavy labours such as stoking a boiler, or opening or shutting the feed water valve, handling an electric generator, switching high tension lines, coupling or uncoupling trucks while in motion, excavating minerals, shovelling rock, etc. Furthermore, the Mining Regulations prohibit the employment of women for more than eight hours underground where the temperature is above 30° C. ; the employment of women underground is prohibited altogether where the temperature is above 35° C. Under the Ordinance of 1 September 1928 already mentioned, underground work for women will be totally abolished as from September 1933.

In spite of this, however, the legal protection of workers against all sorts of dangers in factories, mines, and workshops has been far from adequate. Although the law prohibits the employment of women and young workers on dangerous or unhealthy processes of work, little or no provision for enforcing safety measures against accidents and fire has so far been made. True, the Factory Act (section 13) authorises the administrative authorities to oblige the factory owner to take the necessary preventive measures against accidents or sickness if they " hold that a factory, or the premises or equipment thereof, is likely to prove dangerous or detrimental to health, morality, or other public interests ". However, according to the same section, the administrative authorities are to instruct the employer to take the necessary measures " in accordance with Regulations to be issued by an Ordinance ", and no such Ordinance has yet been issued. It is only in the course of 1928 that the Bureau of Social Affairs has made public its draft of an Ordinance containing the necessary Regulations.

The proposed Regulations are to be enforced in all factories and workplaces covered by the Factory Act. The draft consists of 42 articles dealing with every conceivable point of safety or hygiene in factories, some of which are as follows. All dangerous parts of motors and power transmission apparatus must be guarded. Joints of revolving belts must not be held together with pointed metal lacing, or else they must be guarded. Similar rules apply to couplings, collars, crutches and all other parts of fast-moving machinery by which the workers are liable to be caught. The guards of dangerous parts of machinery must be fixed in such a way as to make it impossible to remove them unless the machinery

stops. There are provisions to ensure escape in case of fire, and for the placing of lights in corridors, staircases, etc. Provisions also exist against explosions of gas, and against the spread of contagious diseases and fire. Recent press reports from Tokyo indicate that the Regulations will be promulgated in due course, although it is expected that a delay of two or even three years in some cases may be necessary before the enforcement of such rules as require alterations in equipment.

Statistics of Accidents and Sickness

Very full statistics relating to mortality, morbidity, and accidents of all sorts among workers in Japanese factories are published by the Bureau of Social Affairs in the annual factory inspection reports. From these reports it appears that in Japanese factories (i.e. where the Factory Act applies) the actual number of fatal or grave accidents is not very high. In mines, where the work is far more dangerous, the number is very much higher.

According to the report for 1926, which is the most recent available, out of 938,928 women employed in Japanese factories in all different industries, only 27 women were killed by accidents and 145 other women were " gravely injured "[1]. These deaths and grave accidents among women affected only 0.02 per cent. of the total number of women workers in factories, whereas the male workers' percentage of deaths and grave accidents was 0.24.

The actual number of fatal and grave accidents happening to women workers was highest in textile mills, as might naturally be expected from the fact that the largest number of women are employed there. Over 812,000 women were working in textile mills at the end of 1926 and there were 124 cases of death or grave injury among them. However, this represents only 0.015 per cent. of the total number of women employed. From the following table of fatal and grave accidents, it is clear that the textile industry is not the most dangerous, since other industries have higher accident rates; for example, 0.08 per cent. in machine and tool shops, 0.06 in the manufacture of foodstuffs and drinks, etc. The following table shows further that the accident rate for men is much higher than that for women in all industries without exception.

[1] Injured so that the person is unable to take up the same work as before, or would require at least 30 days' treatment.

STATISTICS OF GRAVE AND FATAL ACCIDENTS IN JAPANESE FACTORIES IN 1926[1]

Kind of factory	Number of workers (1 Oct. 1926)		Grave accidents (1926)				Percentage of workers injured	
			Men		Women			
	Men	Women	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Men	Women
Textiles	196,884	812,265	300	32	124	14	0.15	0.02
Machines and tools	227,258	17,711	810	97	14	3	0.36	0.08
Chemicals	131,301	51,449	311	60	17	7	0.24	0.03
Food and drink	63,552	15,953	78	11	9	1	0.12	0.06
Gas, electricity, metal refining	21,190	383	58	21	—	—	0.27	—
Miscellaneous	124,424	41,167	241	37	8	2	0.19	0.02
Total	764,609	938,928	1,798	258	172	27	0.24	0.02

[1] *Kojo Kantoku Nenpo* (Annual Factory Inspection Report), 1926, p. 118.

In mines the conditions of safety and hygiene are decidedly worse than in factories. It is correct to say that "by far the most heavily burdened of all the women industrial workers in Japan are those employed in the mines — mainly in coal mines". When the Government decided in September 1928 to abolish underground work for all women workers in mines as from 1933, they had undoubtedly recognised that the conditions arising from this form of labour are a menace to the physical health and moral welfare of the women concerned.

Accidents in Japanese mines are largely due to falling pockets. Collision with cars in the dimly lighted alleys and injuries received by being caught by machines also cause numerous cases of injury. More than 35 per cent. of the accidents in 1926, and nearly 43 per cent. of the deaths of both men and women, were caused by the falling in of pockets. More than 18 per cent. of the deaths were caused by explosions of gas in the mines.

Accidents are very numerous in the mines every year. During 1924[1], for example, as many as 903 persons were killed and 7,311 gravely injured (so that they were unable to take up the same work as before, or required medical or surgical attention for more than 30 days). Among them were 131 women killed and 1,378 women gravely injured. If we include cases of less serious injury, requiring 3 days or more of medical treatment, the total number was no less than 176,605. This number must be said to be exceedingly high when it is recalled that the total number of miners in that year was 305,252. Of this number 75,170 were women, 30,735 of whom were injured by accidents requiring medical or surgical treatment for at least 3 days. The specially great danger of underground work appears from the statistics. As the following table shows, in 1924 it caused 155,994 accidents (including 27,859 accidents to women) as against 20,611 accidents in surface work. The abolition of underground work for women in 1933 will thus mean a very great reduction in the number of accidents to working women. It is only to be wished that the delay in putting this measure into force could be reduced, as during the five years in question the probable number of accidents to women (reckoned at the same rate as in 1924) will be over 139,000.

STATISTICS OF ACCIDENTS IN JAPANESE MINES IN 1924

Result of accident	Underground work		Surface work		Total	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Death	721	125	51	6	772	131
Grave injury[1]	5,103	1,270	830	108	5,933	1,378
Slight injury[2]	122,311	26,464	16,856	2,760	139,167	29,224
Total	128,135	27,859	17,737	2,874	145,872	30,733
	155,994		20,611		176,605	

[1] Unable to take up former work or requiring at least 30 days' treatment.
[2] Requiring at least 3 days' treatment.

Turning next to cases of sickness among women workers, we find again very detailed official reports published by the Japanese

[1] *Honpo Kogyo no Susei* (General Conditions of the Mining Industry in Japan), 1924, pp. 283-284.

Government. Unfortunately these reports on factory workers, so far as they concern cases of sickness, do not cover all factories but only those where 500 or more workers are normally employed; but they may be considered to reflect the general situation fairly well, as the number of workers covered is in fact large. In 1926, for example, there were 535 factories with more than 500 workers, employing altogether 297,984 men and 421,963 women, or almost 39 per cent. of the men and 45 per cent. of the women employed in factories under the Factory Act. The reports show that the sickness rate is by no means low in the large factories, and careful examination of them reveals an increase in the morbidity rates and the need for taking radical hygienic precautions; though the reports also indicate that definite improvements are being made in every line of factory hygiene.

Among the workers in these factories 174,248 suffered from sickness (requiring medical treatment lasting 3 days or more) in 1926. Of this number 135,239[1], or 77.6 per cent., were women, representing 32 per cent. of all the women considered; the corresponding figure for men was 13 per cent. This proportion between men and women is more or less constant from year to year and indicates roughly the relative weakness of women and their susceptibility to diseases in comparison with men.

Lung troubles and disorder of the digestive organs are the commonest of the causes of sickness among workers of both sexes in factories and mines. Nearly 32,000 women, or about 7.5 per cent. of the 421,963 women in factories employing 500 or more workers, representing 23.5 per cent. of all the cases of sickness among these women, suffered from lung trouble or some other disorder of the respiratory organs; they included 2,489 cases of tuberculosis.

Cases of digestive trouble were almost as frequent as those of lung trouble. This is attributed, often by foreign observers who know little about Japanese meals, to the coarse food served in the dormitories or dining rooms of the factories. In 1926, as many as 30,911 women, or 22.9 per cent. of all the cases of sickness among women, suffered from digestive troubles. In addition, about 11 per cent. of the sick men and women suffered from beriberi and 2 per cent. from trachoma.

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[1] There were also 5,698 cases of injury. Cf. *Kojo Kantoku Nenpo*, 1926, p. 175.

Compensation for Sickness and Accidents

Japanese legislation on compensation for sickness and accidents made important progress in 1926 when the revised Factory Act of 1923 and the revised Mining Regulations of 1926 were first put into effect.[1] All the above-mentioned cases of death, sickness, and injury arising out of the performance of work are subject to compensation by law. The sums to be paid out in compensation were greatly raised by the revised laws. During 1926, 244,896 accident cases were compensated; 15,346 women received money or free medical treatment for injuries and 14,694 women for sickness. The total sum paid out to men and women by the employers exceeded 2,805,000 yen. It is to be noted that Japan has ratified the International Convention on workmen's compensation for occupational diseases as well as the Convention on equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents.

Prospects of Reform

To summarise the question of industrial hygiene and safety, it must be said that on the one hand the present situation is disquieting in both factories and mines. Both the number and rate of accidents have tended not to decrease, but to increase[2], and the sickness rate remains high. On the other hand, however, remarkable legislative reforms have recently been made, and others are contemplated. In addition to the Safety Regulations described above, which it is expected will shortly be issued, the Government intends to present to the Diet early in 1929 a Bill to extend the benefits of accident compensation to workers outside factories and mines.[3]

Besides these legislative reforms, improvements are being made in every prefecture under the guidance of the authorities and on the initiative of progressive employers. The efforts of such an influ-

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[1] It may also be recalled that in 1926 the Health Insurance Act, covering cases of sickness, injury, death, and childbirth among industrial workers, was put into effect. For an account of the provisions of this Act, cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 6, Dec. 1926, pp. 861-871.

[2] E.g in 1926, there were 227,660 cases of injury, which was an increase of 24 per cent. over the previous two years, while the number of workers had increased in 1926 by 12.7 per cent. only. Cf. *Kojo Kantoku Nenpo*, 1926, p. 103.

[3] The Bill applies to workers in transit and communication, building, and civil engineering.

ential organisation as the Industrial Welfare Society (*Sangyo Fukuri Kyokai*), organised a few years ago to promote workers' welfare, are bound to accelerate these reforms. Reference may also be made to the spread of the " safety-first " movement, and the increasing popularity of " safety days " in all industrial parts of the country. Thus Japan is on the road of progress and we may look for important improvements in the coming years.

Maternity Protection

Legislation

Due attention has been paid by the Japanese authorities to the important subject of maternity protection, especially for women workers employed in factories or mines. Both the old Factory Act (of 1911) and the Mining Regulations (of 1916) had provisions on this matter. The Draft Convention (Washington, 1919) concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth exerted a beneficent influence on Japanese legislation and in consequence the above-mentioned laws underwent important amendments. The revised laws, which have greatly extended the scope of maternity protection of women in factories and mines, have been in force since 1926.

Before their revision, neither the Factory Act nor the Mining Regulations explicitly prohibited the employment of women during pregnancy. The matter was left to custom, by which it is usual for a woman to stop work when she expects her confinement within a month. The revised laws now definitely prohibit the employment of a woman who expects her confinement within four weeks and asks for leave. As regards women after childbirth, the old laws prohibited their employment within five weeks after their confinement, with the exception that they might be employed three weeks after confinement on light work that the doctor pronounced harmless. The revised laws have extended these limits by a week, so that no woman may be employed until six weeks after her confinement, or four weeks in the case of light and harmless work.[1]

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[1] Ordinance of 7 June 1926 to amend the Regulations for the Administration of the Factory Act, section 9; *Legislative Series*, 1926, Jap. 1 (C). Mining Regulations, section 15.

Besides the above legislation, since 1926 women employed in factories and mines are covered by the Health Insurance Act, in virtue of which they are paid " confinement benefit " of 20 yen, and a special maternity allowance amounting to 60 per cent. of their daily wages during 28 days before and 42 days after childbirth, which is the period in which they are not allowed to work. They may also receive free medical care or the services of a midwife, and if necessary treatment in a hospital, in which case the confinement benefit and maternity allowance may be correspondingly reduced. Further, under the amended Regulations for the administration of the Factory Act the employer must allow a woman who is nursing a child less than a year old to stop her work for this purpose twice a day for thirty minutes on each occasion. This, it will be noticed, is in accordance with the Washington Maternity Convention (Article 3 (*d*)) and was inserted in the revised laws.

The above account suffices to show that the amendments made under the influence of the Washington Convention for women workers before and after childbirth are of no small consequence. It is only regrettable that Japan is unable to ratify the Draft Convention because of a few important points on which the present legal provisions are still at variance with the terms of that Convention. First of all, while the Washington Convention applies to all female industrial workers, the Japanese laws cover only women employed in factories under the Factory Act and in mines. Secondly, the Japanese laws allow the employment of women until four weeks before childbirth, whereas the limit laid down by the Washington Convention is six weeks. In spite of the great advance made, the laws still fall below the standard set up ten years ago at Washington.

Practice

The factory inspection reports show that violation of the legal requirements is practically unknown in Japanese factories.

Another encouraging fact indicated in the reports is the spread of well-managed day nurseries, either in the factories themselves or in their immediate neighbourhood. In the past, one of the sights that caused most dismay to foreign observers was the presence of infants, often dirty and uncared-for, on the factory premises or herded in a pen dignified by the name of " day-nursery " in charge of an old and incompetent woman. Such conditions will shortly be done away with by advanced legislation and the pressure of

aroused public opinion. Clean, healthy, and up-to-date day nurseries with suitable accommodation for nursing and for helping the development of infants are being set up gradually in all large cities.[1] They are already spreading to such mountain districts as Nagano, and even to such a remote prefecture as Iwate, so the reform has begun.

The Dormitory System

Origin and Extent of the System

The so-called "dormitory system", or the system of housing the majority of the workers in tenements or sleeping quarters attached to the workshop, is one but seldom used in Europe or America, although most common in Japan. The system may be regarded as one of the peculiar features of Japanese industry. It has grown out of certain special conditions obtaining in this country which may be briefly explained.

Prior to the introduction of the mechanical civilisation of the West with its steam engines, tramways, and factories, Japan was a quiet country of sparsely populated little villages, connected by poor roads and having only inadequate transport facilities. With the inroad of Western industrialism, that is, as the newly imported power-driven machinery began to turn the small workshops in solitary villages on remote hillsides into huge modern factories, the employers faced the difficulty of recruiting workers in sufficient numbers to operate the newly formed, busy plants. The factory industry was growing out of all proportion to the general progress of the means of transport, and, moreover, the new industrial centres were not always formed in large cities. Night work, carried out largely in textile mills, where the greatest numbers of young girls before their marriage are employed, has tended to increase the necessity of the dormitory system. Added to this, there is on the one hand the high labour turnover; on the other, with the swift growth of industry, the labour supply in the neighbourhood of the factory has always been exhausted rapidly, with the result that workers must be recruited from distant districts, the search being extended far and wide in the remotest corners of the country. When the workers, particularly young and unmarried women,

[1] *Kojo Kantoku Nenpo*, 1925, pp. 234-236; *Idem*, 1926, p. 96, etc.

have been brought from distant places in large numbers, they must be looked after, and provided first of all with eating and sleeping quarters. The inauguration of the dormitory system was the inevitable outcome of the efforts of employers to bring together and keep sufficient numbers of workers near at hand on the factory premises.

The actual extent of the dormitory system is remarkable. Out of 49,649 factories covered by the Factory Act in 1926, no less than 11,992, or nearly 25 per cent., had dormitories attached to them, an increase on the figures for the previous year of 2,162 factories.[1] The number of workers housed in these dormitories was 641,601, representing over 37 per cent. of all the wage-earning workers in factories, mines, and transport and communication. Of these, the male workers numbered 111,158, while the female workers numbered 530,443, or 83 per cent. of the total dormitory population. As the following table shows, a very large number of women employed in textile mills are housed in the dormitories; they represent as many as 98 per cent. of the women living in dormitories of all kinds.[2]

STATISTICS OF FACTORIES WITH DORMITORIES, AND WORKERS HOUSED IN THEM, IN 1926

Industrial group	Factories with dormitories	Workers housed in dormitories		
		Males	Females	Total
Textiles	6,558	60,132	524,306	584,438
Machines and tools	1,272	6,268	93	6,361
Chemicals	750	9,259	2,684	11,943
Food and drink	1,660	27,894	1,105	28,999
Electricity, gas, metal, refining	344	1,318	5	1,323
Miscellaneous	1,408	6,287	2,250	8,537
Total	11,992	111,158	530,443	641,601

[1] It must be remembered that owing to the extension of the scope of the Factory Act in 1926, the number of factories covered by the Act increased, which helped to raise the number of the dormitories in the statistics.

[2] Cf. *Rodo Jiho* (Official Labour Gazette), Feb. 1928, pp. 4-13.

Present Conditions[1]

Study of the factory inspection reports shows that the housing conditions in the dormitories attached to factories are by no means uniform. There are a certain number of factories which have separate houses specially built as dormitories, but there are also many which have turned the second stories of the factories into sleeping quarters. In some cases parts of the employer's own residence are used as sleeping quarters for the operatives; when this is done the conditions are hardly likely to be satisfactory. The houses specially built as dormitories are as a rule frail wooden structures, like all Japanese houses, being either low and flat bungalows, or two-, or rarely three-, storied houses.

From year to year steady improvement is reported in the amount of light in the dormitories, and very dark rooms have practically ceased to exist. When new dormitories are built, care is taken to make further improvements. There has never been any lack of ventilation in the rooms, since in these wooden houses there is an abundance of fresh moving air. The problem in Japan, in fact, is not how to have more air, but rather how to keep the rooms warm. Heating arrangements are unsatisfactory, except in a very few newly built modern dormitory buildings which have installed steam heaters or electric stoves. In Hokkaido, wood, charcoal, or coal stoves are generally used, but in the rest of Japan rooms are as a rule heated with *hibachi*, i.e. a small box in which a few lumps of red-hot charcoal are buried in ash. Even the use of these small boxes is often prohibited, except in common halls, for fear of fire. It must however be remembered that these unsatisfactory heating methods are common to all Japanese houses and are not confined to the dormitories attached to factories. The factory inspectors' reports add that in winter hot-water bottles are often supplied to women to warm the feet in bed.

In cotton and silk spinning mills, the dormitories have for a long time had special dressing-rooms for the women, securing them some degree of privacy for arranging their hair and tidying their appearance. In filatures a corner of the corridor of the dormitory is usually fitted out for this purpose, but an increasing number of factories have recently begun to have special rooms, with a large mirror or several toilet stands and clean wash-basins with running

[1] Most of the information in the following paragraphs has been taken from *Kojo Kantoku Nenpo*.

water. In weaving mills such accommodation is to be found only in large factory dormitories. It is stated, however, that even when no special dressing-room exists, screens are used. Moreover, all women have private lockers in their common bedrooms, and thus a slight amount of privacy is secured.

In the case of large factories, the conditions are generally excellent, the dormitories being well lighted, airy, and scrupulously clean. In such large textile factories as Kanegafuchi or Kurashiki conditions compare favourably with the best in Europe or America in attractiveness and hygienic perfection. Spacious dining halls, comfortable music or play rooms, and clean bathrooms are becoming common features of large and modern dormitories. These dormitories are generally under the care of matrons who look after the moral welfare of the young girls in them.

However, in the average factories the conditions are decidedly inferior. For example, in the prefecture of Saitama, where an official enquiry was carried out recently[1], the prefectural regulations had since 1902 allowed the principle of allocating a space of 6 ft. × 3 ft. per person, with the result that out of 178 dormitories investigated only 95 newly built ones allowed more than 6 ft. × 4 ½ ft. per head. In these circumstances it must be assumed that the case of "putting as many as six girls in a floor space of only 9 ft. × 9 ft.", as reported by a foreign observer[2], is not exceptional. Here again, however, it must be remembered that it is not only the dormitory that allows little space to the inmates; all Japanese houses are the same. In Japan no beds are as yet used by the people. The bedding, consisting of thick quilts and soft mattresses, is put away in a closet during the day, and is pulled out at night and spread over the floor of the sitting room. Thus there is a considerable economy of room space per person. Beds in the European fashion are used only in hospitals and by a very few families.

The custom described above cannot be changed rapidly and unfortunately it inevitably results in overcrowding, which is bound to have undesirable effects from the hygienic point of view. The insanitary practice of allowing two persons to use one set of bedding in common has not completely died out; sometimes the night and day shifts use the same quilts alternately. Also, especially in the

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[1] Cf. *Rodo Jiho*, Feb. 1928, p. 13. The enquiry covered the period \ October 1927.

[2] W. F. France: *Industrialism in Japan*, p. 18. London, 1928.

winter time, two workers share the same bedding and sleep together in order to keep warm.

In the worst factories the dormitory does not exist, and the workers sleep where they can: but to a Japanese worker, who has never had a special bedroom, there is nothing to complain of in this.

Similar remarks can be made about the food, which would strike a foreigner as very coarse and meagre. Meat is only seldom served; milk or butter practically never — but the Japanese do not as a rule eat meat and usually dislike milk and butter, while fish is greatly relished. Fish, rice, vegetables of all sorts, pickled radish or cucumber, etc., are the daily food of the Japanese and these are served in the dormitories. The actual cost of the meals per head per day in the dormitories of most textile mills is between 20 and 40 sen.[1] To a foreigner this sum seems quite inadequate; but the Japanese have always lived in this way and the adequacy of their meals cannot be judged by western standards. A remark that can safely be based on the official reports is that the quality of the food served in the better dormitories is improving greatly. It may also be noted that in most dormitories the workers are not charged the actual cost of the meals, but as a rule only about 50 or 75 per cent. of this, the difference being borne by the management.

Beside the problems of room space, food, and others which concern the material welfare of the workers, difficulties seem to arise from the discipline enforced by the management on the workers kept in the dormitories. A certain amount of disciplinary measures is indispensable where young women are housed in large numbers; but when the precautions overstep the proper limits, as is often alleged to happen, bitter resentment and disputes ensue.[2] The Japanese Workers' Delegate, speaking at the 1928 Session of the International Labour Conference, used the strong term " virtual servitude " in this connection. A few years ago the Kyoto Federation of Women, in their campaign to obtain better legislation for women and ratification of the Draft Conventions relating to women workers, issued a pamphlet in which the following passage occurs :

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[1] 100 sen = 1 yen = nearly 2s.

[2] The demands of women workers who struck at a muslin mill in Tokyo in June 1928 included (*a*) freedom for women workers to marry, (*b*) freedom for women workers not to return to the dormitory till 11 p.m. Cf. *Osaka Asahi*, 3 July 1928.

Most of our dormitories are insanitary. There the personality of women workers is disregarded and in many of them the liberty of the workers is excessively restricted. It is needless to say that the long hours of labour and the life in the dormitory where all freedom is taken away are exerting a deplorable influence on the health and morality of the women workers.[1]

Recent Legislation

There can be no doubt that the system involves many evils; these are recognised by the Government, which has been making serious enquiries into the whole problem, and has recently issued Regulations for the reform of the system.

These Regulations[2] were promulgated on 6 April 1927, and came into force on 1 July 1927. It was not however possible to enforce all their provisions at once, because some of them require the remodelling or rebuilding of considerable parts of the dormitories. The application of several provisions was therefore deferred for a period varying from one to three years.

The Regulations apply to all dormitories belonging to factories which come under the Factory Act, and they aim at promoting the health and safety of women workers as well as guaranteeing their freedom. They lay down for example rules as to the position of the dormitory in relation to the factory. If in the latter any dangerous or unhealthy process of work be carried on, the dormitory must be placed at a safe distance or adequate precautions must be taken against risk to life or health. When the dormitory buildings are not fire-proof, no rooms above the second story may be used as sleeping quarters. All doors of the dormitory building must be so fixed as to open outwards or be drawn sideways so as to allow easy exit in case of fire, earthquake, etc. Rooms are required to be much larger than hitherto, allowing more space to each occupant. Each person must have his or her own bedding, which must not be used by more than one person. Quilts, sheets, etc. may be used by another person only after they have been washed and exposed to the sun. Strict hygienic rules are laid down regarding wash-basins, toilet rooms, towels, various utensils and vessels used in the dormitories. The occupants of dormitories must be medically examined at least twice a year and health records must be

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[1] Kyoto Federation of Women: "The Protection of Women Workers and the International Labour Conventions" (in Japanese), p. 6. Kyoto, 1925.

[2] *Rodo Jiho*, April 1927, pp. 2-3. Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XXII, No. 9, 30 May 1927, pp. 356-358.

kept for a period of three years for the inspection of the authorities. Severe rules are enforced in regard to sick persons, especially those with contagious or infectious diseases. Any restriction on the liberty of the occupants of a dormitory must be reported to the Prefectural Governor, who may modify the restriction if he thinks necessary. Notice of any such restriction must be posted in a conspicuous place.

Penalties are provided for breach of the Regulations. For instance, if in the opinion of the Prefectural Governor the sleeping quarters of a dormitory are a menace to the health or safety of the workers, the factory owner may be required to remedy the deficiency or may be ordered to close the whole or part of the dormitory.

The Recruitment Problem

The gravity of the problem of the recruitment of workers and the important Ordinance recently enacted by the Japanese Government in order to improve the conditions of the system have been fully dealt with in the *International Labour Review*.[1] We need not therefore here dwell on the recruitment problem, but the short space given to it must not be taken as a measure of its importance. We can only indicate the close connection between the dormitory and the recruitment systems, which are really inseparable and profoundly affect the material as well as the moral interests of Japanese women workers.

Even if the dormitory system were thoroughly reformed and transport facilities throughout the country rapidly improved, it seems that the recruitment of workers will still have to be conducted on a large scale in distant prefectures. The recruiting agents employed by the companies proceed to the country districts carrying with them propaganda literature with attractive photographs or even moving pictures showing the bright side of factory life, and describe in glowing terms the advantages and opportunities of the factory. When they quote wages which naturally strike the country people as very high, and promise further the periodic remittance to the parents of part of the girl's earnings, or offer, in addition, to advance a lump sum in cash to the destitute or needy parents, besides advancing money for outfit and transporta-

[1] Cf. Vol. XII, No. 4, Oct. 1925, pp. 484-499 : " Labour Recruiting in Japan and its Control ", by S. Yoshisaka, Director of Factory Inspection, Bureau of Social Affairs.

tion at once, the innocent and poor country folk are naturally attracted. Under normal or ideal circumstances, the girl may serve in the factory for one, two, or even three years, and return to her country home, having saved some money for her marriage dowry. The situation, however, in the past, has seldom been so satisfactory. " So keen is the competition between these labour agents and so drained of young girls are the villages bordering on the fast-growing industrial cities that active recruiting is now going on in distant parts of the country ", at great expense to the companies concerned, which use every possible means of attracting the girls. Evils are apt to arise from the efforts of the competing agents, who may either exaggerate the advantages or even give false accounts, making promises that will never be carried out.' The money advanced to the parents may also be so large a sum that it binds the girl, at least morally, for long years to the factory. Even in the course of recruitment, and while the girl is being taken to the factory town, which is usually at a great distance, her moral welfare may be jeopardised if the labour agent happens to be a man of questionable character, unless there is strict control over the whole process of recruitment. Evils lurk everywhere and abuses have been reported far too often to permit of any doubt as to their existence.

There is therefore much scope for reform, and it is fortunate that the Government has taken up the matter seriously. The Regulations for the control of the recruiting of workers[1] have now been in force throughout Japan for four years (since 1 March 1925) and definite improvements are being reported.[2]

Conclusion

In the foregoing pages we examined first the statistics of women in various industries in Japan, and then proceeded to consider the conditions of employment of these women workers. We found that, in spite of the enormous industrial expansion which has characterised the history of Japan in the past few decades, the country is still largely agricultural, and that nearly two-thirds of the rural workers are women. But none the less Japan is rapidly changing from a predominantly agricultural nation to one of the

[1] Cf. *Legislative Series*, 1924, Jap. 3.

[2] Cf. Seishi Kimura : *Rodosha Boshu Torishimari Rei Shakugi* (Explanation of the Ordinance for the control of the recruiting of workers). Tokyo, 1925.

great States of Chief Industrial Importance of the world, and increasing numbers of women are entering factories or taking up other wage-earning occupations. The most important factory industry, which may well be regarded as the mainstay of Japan's industrial life, namely, the textile industry, depends to a very large extent on the employment of vast numbers of young women workers. It will readily be seen that in these circumstances the labour problem, and particularly the problem of the workpeople in factories and mines, is essentially a problem affecting women, and therefore also the future well-being of the Japanese race.

In order, however, to understand the real nature of the problem, certain special features of the situation in Japan must be kept in view. One of the most important is the population problem. Unlike many countries which have abundant natural resources and relatively few mouths to feed on a rich, fertile, and vast land area, Japan is overburdened with a congested population on a narrow, mountainous, and infertile soil, with no adequate outlet for its surplus numbers.[1]

The mentality and social background of the workers, too, must not be forgotten. We have seen that long hours of leisurely work are in harmony with the age-long tradition of a people who, until sixty years ago, were living under the feudal system, so that a twelve-hour day, for instance, is not necessarily the hardship for Japanese workers that it would be in the West. Similarly, where women especially are concerned, it must be remembered that such virtues as patience, diligence, fidelity, sacrifice, have for ages been systematically inculcated in them. It may be mentioned that their fatalistic attitude of mind is given as one of the reasons preventing the spread of trade unionism among women workers in Japan.[2]

In spite of the difficulties, material and moral, which hamper the improvement of conditions of employment, we have however seen that serious efforts are being made to remove the evils of industrialism and to minimise the exploitation of female and juvenile labour. The legislation passed by the Japanese Govern-

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVI, No. 4, Oct. 1927, pp. 512-526: "The Population Problem and Industrialisation in Japan", by I. F. Ayusawa. Cf. also *Industrial Conditions and Labour Legislation in Japan*; Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 16.

[2] Other reasons are that many of the women come to the factories for two or three years at most, until they earn enough for their marriage dowry, and that the dormitories where the majority of the women live are made inaccessible to the union organisers.

ment in recent years, in particular the revised Factory Act and Mining Regulations, and the Ordinances for their administration, together with many other laws which have been referred to in this study, are a notable achievement. Though much still remains to be done in this field, the progress made in enforcing them, and in bringing about the changes in factory equipment and organisation that must precede their complete enforcement, is evidence that the Government and the country are alike awake to the urgency of adjusting the vital needs of the national economy to the universal dictates of social justice.

An International Conference on Wage Statistics

An international conference on wage statistics convened by the American Social Science Research Council was held recently in Geneva and was attended by representatives from the United States of America, Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, and from the International Labour Office. As this was the first unofficial international conference of its kind, its results are of special interest in comparison with those of the International Conferences of Government Labour Statisticians held in 1923 and 1925[1], *and as a starting point, it is hoped, for further development of national wage statistics and possibly for future conferences of a similar nature. The following article, therefore, gives an account of the origin of the Conference, and its results.*

Origin and Object of the Conference

IN 1927, the Social Science Research Councila (United States), a body formed in 1923 for encouraging reserch in the social sciences and to serve as a "general staff" studying the larger possibilities of scientific methods applied to the understanding of man and his institutions, and consisting of representatives of seven national organisations, conceived the idea of making an international study of wage data. Its Advisory Committee on Industrial Relations, presided over by Mr. Dennison, President of the Dennison Manufacturing Company, and nationally known for his successful social experimentation, was impressed by the impossibility of making trustworthy comparisons of wage rates, earnings, real wages, and labour costs in different countries. It therefore contemplated that an American Committee appointed by the Social Science Research Council, in consultation with recognised international institutions, should take the initiative in calling an International

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[1] For accounts of these Conferences, cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. IX, No. 1, Jan. 1924, pp. 3-30, and Vol. XII, No. 1, July 1925, pp. 1-22; also Studies and Reports, Series N (Statistics), Nos. 4 and 8.

Conference on Wage Data. It was considered advisable to limit the Conference to the chief industrial countries, i.e., in addition to the United States and Canada, to Great Britain, France, Germany, and Italy, as it was believed that responsible influences in these countries could be brought to support the work in this field of international organisations such as the International Labour Office. The scheme proposed was that representative national committees should be formed in each of the countries, which should prepare a thorough and critical analysis of what the wages and hours statistics available in their own countries really mean, the extent and limitation of their services, and how they can properly be used in international comparisons. When the committees had prepared their reports, a conference would be held in order to afford an opportunity for a critical exchange of this information, and for suggestions as to what measures of improvement should be taken, and how they should be undertaken. National committees were accordingly set up, in the summer of 1928, in Great Britain (under the chairmanship of Professor Clay of the University of Manchester) and in France (under the chairmanship of Professor Picard of the University of Paris), in addition to the Committee representing the United States and Canada, already mentioned, under the chairmanship of Mr. Dennison. In the case of Germany and Italy no national committees were set up, but Dr. Wagemann, President of the Statistical Office, assisted by some officials of his department, undertook the work of preparation of the report on German wages, while Professor Gini, President of the Central Statistical Institute, prepared a report on Italian statistics.

The International Labour Office, in view of its competence in the matter of wage comparisons, was naturally interested from the first in this initiative. Not only had it published a number of reports on wages in different countries, and undertaken at regular intervals a comparison of real wages in a large number of capital cities, but it had been frequently consulted by Governments, and by employers' and workers' associations, as to the level and movement of wages in all countries of the world, and had become recognised as a central authority, an "international clearing house", on the subject of wages and standards of living. It had, moreover, made special efforts to improve and render more comparable the wage statistics of various countries by convoking conferences of Government Labour Statisticians. The first of these, held in 1923, had laid down, necessarily in somewhat general terms, the methods of compiling statistics of wages and hours in the different countries,

and at a second conference, held in 1925, the methods of making international comparisons of wages between different countries were discussed. Any further attempt to improve national wage statistics could not but be welcomed by the International Labour Office. As an official organisation it is necessarily obliged to work primarily through the Governments of the Member States, and hence the Conferences of 1923 and 1925 were confined to duly accredited Government delegates who would be responsible for the carrying into effect of any of the resolutions adopted by the Conference. The 1929 Conference, however, was entirely unofficial, and the International Labour Office was invited to take part in the same way as the different national representatives, who, in so far as they were public officials, did not attend in their official capacity. It was hoped in this way to get the collaboration and impartial views not merely of the " producers " of statistics, but also of " consumers ", such as economists, business men, workers' representatives, private statisticians, and research workers, who would be able to state what, in their opinion, were the scope and lacunae of their national statistics, how they could be improved, and how the best use could be made of them.

The intention of the promoters was to hold the Conference in Europe in the autumn of 1928, but in view of the fact that the various committees did not complete their reports till the end of that year, the Conference was postponed till 1929 and opened in Geneva on 12 January, when some twenty delegates, representing the United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, and Italy, together with representatives of the Statistical Section of the International Labour Office, assembled.

The Work of the Conference

In view of the informal character of the Conference, no minutes of the proceedings were taken, and it is only possible to give a short outline of the discussions which led to the adoption of resolutions.

The Conference was presided over by Mr. Henry Dennison, Chairman of the Committee on Industrial Relations of the Social Science Research Council, who, in welcoming the delegates, outlined the objects of the Conference and invited the chairman or chief representative of each delegation to summarise the report he had submitted on the wage statistics of his own country. A representa-

tive of the International Labour Office followed with an account of the work of the Office and of the difficulties it had experienced in making international wage comparisons. The opening meeting showed at once the great diversity, not only in the national wage statistics, but also in the way the national reports had been drawn up. This was only to be expected, in view of the fact that no plan for the drawing up of the reports on uniform lines had been made, and it rendered their comparison somewhat difficult. The discussion, however, brought out two of the most important uses of wage statistics, on which it was decided to concentrate future discussion, namely, the methods of measuring changes in wages over a period of time in a given country, and the international comparison of wages at the same period between different countries; and Committees were accordingly set up to deal with each of these subjects. A General Committee, consisting of the President of the Conference, the principal delegate from each of the four European countries, and a representative of the International Labour Office, which was at the same time an editorial committee, a selection committee, and an organisation committee, was also set up. As the Conference only met again once for a short time for the purpose of adopting the reports of the three Committees, the further account of the work of the Conference is limited to that of the Committees.

Work of the Committee on Wage Index Numbers

This Committee met under the chairmanship of Professor Gini, President of the Central Institute of Statistics, Rome, and, as stated above, confined itself to laying down general principles for the guidance of the experts in the different countries in the preparation of index numbers of wages. It distinguished six different purposes for which such index numbers may be compiled, and prepared an elaborate and comprehensive series of resolutions on the methods to be adopted. It prefaced these resolutions with a general preamble which explained the spirit in which it approached its task and the general considerations by which it was moved in adopting its resolutions, and no better account of the work of the Committee can be given than to repeat this document, which runs as follows.

The Committee is fully aware that in the majority of countries the available data are too limited for all the requisite conditions for the compilation of satisfactory index numbers of wages to be fulfilled.

However, it considered it desirable in the circumstances to discuss the conditions to be observed in order that index numbers of wages should, as far as possible, be adapted to the purposes for which they may be used. It seemed to the Committee that such an examination was useful not merely from the point of view of statistical theory, but also from the practical point of view, because many countries are at present passing through a period in which wage statistics are being reorganised on fresh bases, and it may be very useful for these countries to have certain guiding principles for the collection and tabulation of their figures. Moreover, even if it appears that the programme outlined is incapable of realisation at the moment, it will, nevertheless, have a certain practical utility because it will make clear the extent of the reservations to be made when interpreting necessarily incomplete series of wage index numbers, whether existing, or to be drawn up in the future.

The Committee unanimously recognised that the compilation of index numbers of wages must proceed along perceptibly different lines as regards both the data to be taken into account, and the methods of collection and tabulation, according to the purpose for which the index numbers are to be used.

It would consequently serve no useful purpose to attempt to establish an index number for wages for all purposes ; on the contrary, it is necessary to consider separately the establishment of different indexes corresponding to different purposes.

There are three obvious and very distinct purposes for which index numbers of wages may be required :

(1) to determine one of the elements for measuring fluctuations in the standard of living ;

(2) to calculate the remuneration per hour of work ;

(3) to calculate the labour cost per unit of production.

Within each of these purposes, the object may be to determine the fluctuations in wages in time, or to make comparisons between different districts or different countries. In accordance with the task entrusted to it, the Committee, generally speaking, considered chiefly the first of these points of view, that is to say, the variations in wages in time within a country.

At the same time, international comparisons of the remuneration per hour of work seemed so much more valuable than comparisons in time in a single country, that the Committee felt impelled to examine certain specially difficult points raised by this question.

For each of the purposes mentioned above, a distinction must be made according to whether the index is considered as applying to the working class as a whole, or as an indication of the variations occurring in different industries or classes of workers, independently of the influence which the relative importance of these different industries or classes of workers may have on the general wage averages. For example, if index numbers of wages are considered as one of the factors to be taken into account in estimating the standard of living of the workers, then the aim may be to measure separately the variations in the standard of living of skilled, semi-skilled, or unskilled workers ; or the variations occurring among the workers as a whole, which may arise to a considerable extent from the fact that skilled workers may be at present much more numerous than formerly. The Committee therefore considered it desirable to keep in mind these two points of view. A similar distinction may be made, and was in fact taken into account by the Committee, in considering the labour cost per unit of production.

In the same way a calculation of the remuneration per hour of labour

may be concerned with the remuneration for any hour, or for an hour of the same nature (normal or supplementary work, skilled, semi-skilled, or unskilled work) and of the same efficiency in regard to either individual qualifications or technical equipment. The Committee, in view of the limited time at its disposal, restricted its examination to the latter point of view.

In addition to the three main purposes analysed above, there are two others for which index numbers of wages have been employed. There is, first, that of measuring the variations in the total amount of wages as a percentage of the national income, and secondly, that of using them as one of the factors in economic forecasting. The Committee was of opinion that this latter purpose was particularly important, and therefore gave it special attention.

It must be understood that when the Committee states that index numbers of wages may be used for measuring the standard of living or the remuneration for an hour of work, or again as a factor in economic forecasting, it does not thereby imply that they represent the only factor to be taken into account for the purpose in view. It is obvious that the index numbers of wages can only be one factor, and that other measurements must also be taken into consideration. In particular, the index number of the cost of living must be considered when estimating the standard of living or the real remuneration for an hour of work, and similarly, the level of prices when the index numbers of wages are to be used in calculating the labour cost per unit of production. In the same order of ideas the Committee unanimously decided (as the second Conference of Labour Statisticians had done) that the data concerning actual earnings should be taken for preference, save in exceptional cases, in examining the question of the standard of living.

The Committee was unanimously of the opinion that in determining the standard of living no attempt should be made to allow for the subjective cost of labour, which it is quite impossible to measure ; on the contrary, the term " standard of living " should retain the connotation which it generally has in economic science, namely, that of material well-being. In order to avoid any misunderstanding the Committee would even have adopted the suggestion of using the term "purchasing power" instead of " standard of living ", if it had not been that it considered it more practical to retain the commoner expression which is more familiar to the majority of workers, rather than employ a technical term whose exact significance is probably fully grasped only by specialists.

The Committee did not claim to deal with all the important points, but was content to consider for each type of index :

(1) the wages data (rate of wages, average wages, or actual earnings) to be taken into account in each case ;

(2) the industries or classes of workers to which these data should refer ;

(3) the areas from which returns should be collected ;

(4) the period during which the data should be gathered ;

(5) the method of arriving at the index numbers, that is, the weighting of the various classes or industries, the choice of the basic period, etc.

Generally speaking, the Committee wishes to emphasise the importance, whenever a series of index numbers of wages is published, of giving a detailed explanation of the principles adopted with reference to each of the five points enumerated above, and of all the other factors which may be essential for a true interpretation of the index numbers.

Finally, while the Committee, in accordance with the task entrusted to it, considered in particular the fluctuations of wages within single

countries, it also frequently emphasised the fact that comparisons between different districts and different countries were no less important, and might even be of greater value.

The text of the resolutions is given below in Appendix I. These resolutions are definitely "ideal" resolutions, i.e. they show the best methods to be adopted, granted that all the necessary data are available, and it is doubtful if many countries will be able to apply them at present. It may safely be said, however, that no such detailed series of resolutions on statistical methods for compiling wage index numbers has ever existed before ; and the Committee and the Conference as a whole are indebted to the chairman, Professor Gini, to whose authority and competence this satisfactory result is due.

Work of the Committee on International Wage Comparisons

This Committee met under the chairmanship of Mr. Dubreuil (France) and entered upon the task in a somewhat different spirit from that of the former Committee. It conceived its primary task to be that of seeing how far the data for making international wage comparisons could be improved, and as the only regular comparisons of such a nature are those made by the International Labour Office, it naturally took these figures as a basis for its discussion. The scope of the figures used by the Office and the method employed have been frequently published, and are indicated farther on in this *Review*. They are based primarily on rates of wages and on retail prices of food — the latter being used for the calculation of "real" wages. The Committee, however, confined itself entirely to the money wage aspect, and did not touch on the question of real wages, i.e. the purchasing power of wages.

Before adopting any resolutions on the subject, however, the Committee considered certain general questions arising out of the nature of wage data. It insisted on the distinction between "rates" of payment for a certain unit of time, and "earnings" or the amount actually received by a worker at the end of the pay period. This distinction, though elementary, is fundamental, and yet is often neglected in current wage statistics. The Committee realised the advantages and drawbacks of each of these types of data, but considered that greater comparability might be achieved if each country developed the kind of data in which its present statistics are weakest, and in order to show to what extent the existing statistics are comparable, it suggested that the International

Labour Office might publish an annual statement showing, for each of the principal industries, the type of data at present available in the chief countries. This statement would show at a glance the differences in the scope of the data for different countries, and, by inference, the countries for which neither form is available. This, it was thought, would encourage the various countries to supplement their statistics, and in course of time the annual statement would gradually improve until more adequate comparisons would be possible.

The limitations in the wage statistics at present collected by the International Labour Office for the purpose of international comparisons have long been recognised, and the Committee believed it possible to improve the value of the statistics by adding to the number of occupations and to the number of localities covered, and urged the Office to ask the national authorities to supply the additional information for this purpose. It selected certain further occupations whose inclusion did not appear unsuitable, and considered that it might also be possible to include railway workers and commercial and municipal employees.

The text of the resolutions adopted by this Committee is given below in Appendix II. Unlike those of the first Committee, they exclude all questions of methodology and deal solely with certain practical aspects of the collection and comparison of wage data. The problem of " real " wage comparisons was not dealt with by the Committee, but nevertheless its resolutions will prove a useful encouragement to the work of the International Labour Office in this sphere.

Work of the General Committee

The primary task of this Committee was to consider the various reports on national wage statistics which had been submitted with a view to their co-ordination. It was realised that though these reports contained information of great value for all persons interested in statistics of wages, their value would be considerably improved if they were drawn up on a uniform plan and were accompanied by a series of tables showing for each industry or occupation the information available concerning (*a*) rates of wages, (*b*) labour cost. Each of these tables would show in detail the origin and source of the wage data, their scope (i.e. areas covered and frequency of collection, and classes of workers covered), their nature (whether hourly, daily, etc., whether average or actual rates, etc.), and the hours of labour. A complete scheme of synoptic tables was drawn

up for this purpose. It was decided that these tables should be submitted to the authors of the national reports for completion, and that each report should be based on the scheme laid down in these tables. The headings of the tables, adopted by the Conference, are not reproduced here.

It was generally felt that the work of the Conference had been sufficiently useful to justify a permanent record, and the Chairman, at the unanimous request of the General Committee, promised to ask the Executive Committee of the American Social Science Research Council to sponsor the publication of a report of the proceedings. This volume would consist of a short account of the origin and purpose of the Conference, the various reports submitted to it, the texts of the resolutions adopted, and, in an appendix, the synoptic tables showing, for each of the countries represented, the character of the wage data available. Professor Clay (British National Committee) and the Chief of the Statistical Section of the International Labour Office were authorised to carry on negotiations as Joint Editors with the different countries as regards the re-drafting of the reports and the preparation of the volume for the press. The text of the resolutions as printed below is therefore provisional and subject to revision. It was decided at the same time that the members of this Committee should keep in touch with each other and should consider in due course the advisability and practicability of holding another Conference.

* * *

It is of course too early to say what the results of the Conference will be. Its immediate result was the bringing together of a number of persons, all interested, though from different points of view, in improving wage statistics, not only in the direction of quantity, but in that of quality. The mutual discussion of the difficulties experienced in the various countries, and the willingness shown by all the representatives to endeavour to improve their national statistics of wages and hours of labour, are a good augury for the future. The scientific work of the International Labour Office in collecting and comparing wage data for international purposes has received a new stimulus, and the fact that the national committees are still keeping in touch with each other through the General Committee is proof that the good work undertaken through the initiative and generosity of the American Social Science Research Council will not be allowed to lapse.

APPENDIX I

Resolutions on the Construction of General Index Numbers of Wage Changes

(Provisional Text)

I. Construction of Indexes to measure Changes in the Standard of Living of the Working Class as a Whole

(1) *Choice of Type of Wage Data.*

If the standard of living is used in its generally accepted sense of material well-being, it is evident that for the purpose of constructing wage index numbers to measure changes in the standard of living of the working class as a whole, the ideal type of data to be used should be actual annual earnings, or earnings for a shorter period representative of annual earnings.

Experience in certain countries shows that in fact changes in actual earnings may differ from changes in rates of wages and in average wages per hour. But this does not exclude the fact that in other countries changes in rates of wages may be considered as approximately representative of changes in actual earnings in certain industries and under certain conditions.

While recognising that, in normal conditions, the standard of living may be considered proportional to actual earnings, it must be recognised that if the hours worked are such as to lead to fatigue and other adverse effects, this circumstance would affect the standard of living, and the accuracy of an index number based on actual earnings. In these cases, it would be desirable to take hours of labour into consideration.

(2) *Industries and Categories of Workers to be included.*

For the construction of such index numbers it would be desirable to consider changes in the wages of the wage-earning class as a whole, but as in practice this would be rarely possible, it is necessary to select certain industries and categories of workers which would be representative of the wage-earning class. In this case it will be necessary to indicate clearly the industries and categories of workers covered by the statistics.

If it is desired to measure the standard of living of the wage-earning class as a whole, it is indispensable to include agricultural workers, as well as workers in industry proper. But as in most countries statistics of the cost of living of agricultural workers are not available, it will be necessary, when one wishes to compare index numbers of wages with index numbers of the cost of living, to consider separately the workers in industry proper.

(3) *Choice of Districts.*

Where it would not be possible to cover the whole country, districts should be chosen so as to be representative of the whole country. If

adequate consideration is not given to this very important point, there is the danger that wage index numbers will be compiled which are not representative of the actual situation, either from the point of view of the levels of wages of the wage-earning class, or from the point of view of their changes.

(4) *Frequency of Compilation.*

From the point of view of the practical use of these statistics, it would appear reasonable that the frequency of compilation should be determined in relation to the stability of economic conditions, compilation being less frequent when these conditions are more stable.

From the point of view of facility in collecting the statistics and for the purpose of ensuring their accuracy, there may be certain reasons, as is shown by the experience of a number of countries, for the compilation of the statistics at frequent intervals, even when economic conditions are stable.

In any case, it is opportune to determine frequency of compilation in relation to the systems of wage payment in use in the different countries, selecting periods for which the wage payments may be considered complete. Generally a period of one month (or four weeks) would appear to be the most suitable, and to be satisfactory in relation to other general uses of the wage index numbers. Where the supply of information depends on the good will of the employers, it is necessary to take care that the statistics for successive periods relate to the same establishments. If this condition cannot be realised, it would become necessary to obtain also statistics for the preceding period in order to enable the figures for successive periods to be connected by the chain system.

When the system of payment includes remuneration covering several periods, it is necessary to distribute the remuneration among each of the periods to which it applies, or possibly over succeeding periods until a new payment is made.

(5) *Method of Compilation.*

As to the method used in establishing these index numbers, the most precise consists in relating the total actual earnings compiled or calculated for a given period to the corresponding actual earnings for the period taken as basis. These averages may be compiled per worker, or better, per member of the family, if it is possible to include the earnings of other members of the family.[1] The last consideration, which may be important in international comparisons, does not, however, have any appreciable effect on time comparisons in a country.

The calculation of a simple or a weighted average index number for the various industries and occupations, the weights remaining constant during the various periods, may lead in certain circumstances to false conclusions, for they do not take into account the movement of workers

[1] These averages will usually be compiled per earner, but when it is possible to obtain the information they may also be compiled per family. In this case the average size of the family should be given, expressed, if possible, in terms of "adult men".

from one industry to another and from one occupation to another. These movements may in certain cases be of great importance. In consequence, if it is necessary to use partial indexes for the different industries, it is necessary to revise the weighting as often as possible so as to take account of these changes. For such a series of index numbers, the choice of base period does not influence the index numbers.

It would be desirable, however, that all countries should adopt a common base period and for various reasons a post-war period is favoured. This does not exclude, naturally, the possibility for certain countries of constructing a series with pre-war bases. The fact that in various countries statistics of wages are in their infancy or in course of being organised, and also the fact that in various countries economic conditions are not yet stable enough, hinders the fixing at present of the most appropriate base period common to all countries. In a general way it would be preferable not to choose the first period for which the enquiries are made, as in general the first enquiries are not the most exact.

II. Construction of Index Numbers of Wages for measuring, in each Country, the Changes in the Fluctuation in the Standard of Living in different Industries or Occupations

It might be interesting for certain purposes to measure fluctuations in the standard of living, not of the workers as a whole, but in different industries or occupations, without taking into account fluctuations in the standard of living of the workers as a whole, which may arise from variations in the numerical importance of different industries or occupations. In this case, the same methods are to be recommended as to the choice of wage data, of localities, and of periods. For the construction of these index numbers it will be necessary to compile special index numbers for each of the industries and categories included and to take a weighted mean, using a constant weighting for each period covered.

III. Calculation of Index Numbers of Wages as an aid in forecasting Economic Conditions

(1) *Choice of Data.*

In countries which do not possess well-organised statistics of unemployment, overtime, and short time, or in countries where the wage rates are fixed for a determined and fairly lengthy period, the statistics of earnings are preferable for following economic fluctuations. In countries for which the statistics of unemployment, etc. are well organised, and where rates of wages can be changed according to economic conditions, it may be useful to consider also rates of wages as an index for economic forecasting, as, at the beginning of a crisis, these rates may vary according to the orders received by establishments, and consequently may constitute a more sensitive index than that of actual earnings.

(2) *Industries and Categories of Workers.*

In every country it is necessary to take into consideration the industries and categories of workers whose variations in wage rates or actual

earnings are the most sensitive ; the work of choosing the industries and categories the most appropriate for these studies must be left to the specialists of each country. Certain industries even of less economic importance, like the luxury trades and printing, may give interesting information in this field, whilst industries which receive orders long periods in advance, and may in certain cases be the most important ones from the economic point of view, may be less adequate for forecasting.

In each branch of industry the best organised establishments which can estimate with the greatest certitude the future development of the market should primarily be considered.

(3) *Choice of Localities.*

In order to establish economic forecasts, it is advisable to take into special consideration certain centres or localities which, either because of the concentration of industry, or because of some special development, or for other reasons, are, as experience has shown, the first to show symptoms of crisis or of economic revival.

(4) *Periodicity.*

The interval chosen should be as short as possible.

(5) *Method of Compilation.*

It would be advisable, even if it were desired to reduce the various information into one index, to publish separately the information for the various industries, occupations, and localities, so that all necessary information would be available for the interpretation of these indexes.

IV. Compilation of Index Numbers of Wages which may be used to measure the Earnings for an Hour of Work, comparable in Nature and Efficiency

(1) *Choice of Data.*

It is understood that the best method theoretically would be to determine separately the average wages per hour of normal work and the average wages per hour of overtime, and to combine these two averages by means of a constant weight.

As it is not generally possible to establish this distinction in practice, the most practical method for avoiding this difficulty would be in many countries to calculate a single average of wages paid for normal and overtime work, including special allowances, payments in kind, etc., which would be arrived at by dividing the aggregate amount of actual earnings by the total number of working hours. Against this method of calculation the objection may be raised that changes in the payment for an hour of work may result merely from a change in the proportion between the normal hours of work and hours of overtime accomplished. This objection is the more important, the more important are the changes in this proportion.

(2) *Industries and Categories of Workers.*

The comparison may cover certain categories of workers belonging to certain occupations who in different countries, or in different periods, work with approximately similar equipment and under similar conditions. However, it must not be overlooked that the individual workers who perform the same occupations in different countries and in various periods may differ in varying degrees from the average worker in respect to individual skill and efficiency. This objection would be the more important in practice, the more restricted the number of occupations and the number of workers considered.

Even if the comparisons between different countries may on this account be uncertain, it is possible that the variations in time shown by these index numbers may be comparable among themselves.

(3) *Localities.*

It is understood that the localities should be representative of the conditions of the whole country. Consequently it may not be sufficient to limit the statistics to capital or principal cities, because the differences, in this respect, between these and the rest of the country may be more or less great according to the country or the period considered.

(4) *Periodicity.*

If it were possible to determine separately the average wages per normal hour and per hour of overtime, it would be desirable to secure data for as brief periods as possible. Since in general such data are not available, it will be necessary to choose rather long periods so that the different circumstances influencing the amount of overtime work might compensate each other.

(5) *Method of Calculation.*

It goes without saying that the different occupations chosen for international comparisons will comprise different numbers of workers in different countries, and that these differences will not be similar in all countries and will even present considerable variations from country to country.

Since the index numbers are to be used to measure the changes in the earnings per hour of work of a given nature and given efficiency, it will be necessary to calculate as many special index numbers as there are from this point of view different categories, and then to compute an average of these index numbers.

It is evident that the index numbers calculated for different categories of workers should be weighted according to the number of workers in each category. A practical difficulty in comparing the index numbers of different countries arises from the fact that the numbers of workers of each category would vary from country to country, and that there is no reason for taking as basis the number of workers in one country rather than that in another country. In order to avoid this difficulty, it might be advisable to repeat the calculation as many times as there are countries, using in turn the weight corresponding to the conditions prevailing in each country.

The results of the calculation will show whether the application of the different methods of weighting will produce significant deviations.

V. Compilation of Index Numbers of Wages for the purpose of measuring the Labour Cost per Unit of Production

If the unit of production is taken in the sense of a unit of value, the determination of labour cost per unit of production consists in calculating the percentage of the total value of production represented by the aggregate wages paid to the working class. It is evident that even if in some countries and in certain branches of productive activity establishments already furnish data of this kind, it is not possible to expect at present an extension of these enquiries over all branches of economic activity and all countries. In this respect the Commission, while hoping that this will be possible in respect to an increasing part of production and increasing number of countries, considers that the collection of data on wages, cost of labour, and cost of production should be organised as far as possible so as not to give rise to fears or opposition on the part of the establishments. Even if this opposition to supplying this detailed information about different business establishments is sometimes due rather to habits or traditional ideas which are no longer justifiable, it is necessary in any case to take account of them because the sincere collaboration of the proprietors of establishments constitutes an exceedingly useful element in ensuring the accuracy of the data.

In any case the possibility may be considered of measuring the variations, between different periods or different localities, in the labour cost as an element in the total cost of production. There are, in fact, several countries which establish censuses of the value of production for the whole country or for industry as a whole, or for industrial production, or for manufacturing, or for large industries, or even for agricultural production. For these countries it would be possible to establish index numbers showing the variations in the value of the production as between different periods. If it should be possible to establish, in addition to this series of index numbers, another series of index numbers relating to aggregate wages paid to the workers covered, it would be possible to state whether the value of production has increased more or less rapidly than the aggregate wages bill, and consequently whether the percentage of wages in the total cost of production has increased or decreased during this period.

Similarly, it is possible to proceed to comparisons between different countries, provided that the data concerning the production of these countries are comparable between themselves ; it is, however, difficult to satisfy this condition.

It is evident that this method may be applied either to production as a whole or to certain special branches of production, or further to a particular industry. It is obvious that care should be taken in interpreting the variations in the percentages showing changes between different periods as well as between different countries, because these variations or differences may be due to extremely different circumstances, such as differences in machinery and equipment, in natural conditions, in the efficiency of labour, etc.

In compiling these index numbers, it is convenient to proceed as follows :

(1) To take as bases the actual earnings — that is to say, the aggregate and not the average earnings.

(2) and (3) If it is not possible to take into account all localities and industries concerned, to choose representative localities and industries.

(4) To obtain records of wages for the same periods as for the censuses or evaluations of production, which can only be effected at rather long intervals.

(5) To adopt for the index numbers of wages the same base as for the index numbers of production, and to follow in respect of weighting the principles specified under I and II, according as it is proposed to make, or not to make, allowance for the effects of differences in the importance of the production of different industries.

VI. Compilation of Index Numbers of Wages which may be used for measuring the Variations in the Proportion of the National Income formed by Wages

The percentage of the value of production represented by the aggregate wages of labour may have a very different meaning according as it applies to primary production (extractive industries, forestry or agriculture) in which the consumption of the products of other industries is of small importance, or to manufacturing industries in which an important part of the value of the product is due to raw materials or semi-manufactured products. This inconvenience might be avoided if the total wages are related not to the total value of production but to the value of the net product of industry.

The relation between the aggregate earnings of labour as a whole and the national income is of particular interest from theoretical and practical points of view.

As regards the choice of data concerning wages, industries, localities, the frequency of collection, and the methods of calculating the index numbers, the principles indicated under V may in general be applied.

However, it is to be observed that the comparisons between different countries may be in practice more frequent and less difficult in this case. In fact, many countries in which comparable data concerning the value of production are not available calculate approximately the amount of national income.

Per contra, the comparisons as between different periods would probably be less frequent in the present case because the variations in the income can be evaluated with sufficient accuracy only at fairly long intervals.

Recommendation

The Conference, in approving the report of the Committee [on Wage Index Numbers], commends its recommendations to the attention of the authorities responsible for the compilation of wage statistics in the different countries and the International Labour Office, and undertakes, by the mutual exchange of information and otherwise, to assist in bringing wage statistics into accord with the principles therein laid down.

APPENDIX II

Resolutions on International Wage Statistics

(Provisional Text)

I

(1) The Committee is impressed by the fact that a great variety of wage statistics is collected in the various countries. In general these statistics may be described as statistics of earnings or of wage rates. Some countries are strong in statistics of rates, others of earnings. It is desirable that records of the movement both of rates of wages and of earnings should be available. The Committee therefore recommends that :

(*a*) the countries which are weak in statistics of earnings take steps to add to those statistics by collecting statistics of earnings, for the principal occupations as well as for the chief industries, and of total hours worked from which it would be possible to compute earnings per hour, and that

(*b*) the countries which have concentrated on statistics of earnings improve their figures of wage rates and of changes in wage rates.

(2) It is evidently of the greatest importance that the expressions " earnings " and " rates of wages " should have the same meaning in the statistics of the different countries. With this object the Committee recommends that :

(*a*) the statistics of the different countries indicate clearly what is understood by the expressions " rates of wages " and " earnings ", and particularly what are the payments in money and in kind which are included in " earnings " ;

(*b*) at intervals, special enquiries should be undertaken to show what are the differences between the rates of wages and average wages (earnings) of different branches of industry and categories of workers.

(3) The Committee is of the opinion that attention might be particularly directed to defects in the information at present available in the various countries if the International Labour Office would compile an annual statement, if possible in tabular form, by industries, either of wage rates or earnings or both. The statement should, if possible, also include for the various industries in each country the full-time and actual hours together with their distribution.

It is considered that the publication of such information would encourage the various countries to supplement their statistics as to rates or earnings or both, and that in course of time the annual statement would gradually improve until it would provide material for more adequate comparisons.

II

The Committee is impressed by the limitations of the present quarterly statistics of wages published by the International Labour Office, due to the fact that few industries and occupations in, generally, only one city in each country are included.

The Committee believes that it would be possible to improve the statistics by adding to the number of occupations and of cities. It therefore recommends that the Conference invite the International Labour Office to consider whether these defects could possibly be remedied by asking the national authorities concerned to supply them with additional information necessary for this purpose.

The Committee has selected a few additional occupations which appear not unsuitable for immediate inclusion. These are named in the annex to these Recommendations. The Committee also considers that the number might be further increased.

The Committee also ventures to suggest that the International Labour Office might be asked to consider the possibility of consulting with competent bodies in the several countries as to whether other localities could be added to the present list, and the further question whether it might be possible to indicate more definitely the divisions of industry to which some of the occupations included belong and to omit any localities which are not really representative of any country as a whole.

The occupations proposed for addition are confined to non-localised industries. It might be possible also to include occupations from other non-localised industries, such as railway transportation, and also commercial and municipal employees. Localised industries such as iron and steel, textiles, mining, and shipbuilding can only be dealt with by consultation with the representatives of the several countries, and certain occupations which come under this head and the towns in which they are found might also be added to the list.

If fuller information on the lines indicated is obtainable, the collection and publication of statistics for localised and non-localised industries on a half-yearly or yearly basis might be adequate.

Annex

Building Industry :

Structural iron workers.
Concrete workers.

Electric Power Distribution :

Electrical engineers.

Electrical Installation (Buildings) :

Electrical fitters.

Transport :

Tram and bus drivers.
Tram and bus conductors.
Motor drivers (van and lorry).
Horse drivers.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

Clauses restricting Freedom of Employment ("Radius Clauses") in the Employment Contracts of Technical Workers and Salaried Employees in Industry and Commerce: II[1]

Limits of the Restraint

In most countries where a radius clause is ordinarily included in contracts of employment, limits have been set either by legislation or by the courts in order to avoid or to reduce the abuses to which this clause may give rise. These limits nearly always refer to the kind of business in which the employee undertakes not to work, the duration of this undertaking, and the area to which it extends.

In thus limiting the scope of the restraint to which the employee pledges himself in reference to his former employer, the aim of the law or of the courts has been to take measures to protect the technical worker or salaried employee, based on moral considerations and principles of public policy.

In *Austria* the duration of the agreement is generally one year.

In *Belgium* the scope of the clause varies very much. The restraint may extend over a period of from one to ten years. With reference to area, it generally applies to the town or province, but sometimes also to the whole country and even to one or more foreign countries. In general, it is considered legal by the courts only if it does not exceed two years, applies to a limited kind of activity, and does not go outside the province.

In *Czechoslovakia* the restraint may not exceed one year nor go outside the line of business carried on by the employer.

In *Denmark* the duration of the radius agreement is generally less than five years. For commercial travellers it is from five to ten years. As regards area, it is generally limited to the town in which the employer's premises are situated.

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[1] For the first part of this report, cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIX, No. 3, March 1929, pp. 402-415.

In *France* the radius agreement must be limited in its object, and either in time or in area. The limitation as regards the object, i.e. the kind of work which the employee undertakes to avoid, tends in practice to be very widely extended. It is, for example, quite common for an employee to undertake "not to be connected in any way whatsoever with any firm carrying on an industry analogous (or similar) to that of the firm X . . . ".

The limitation as regards time is in agreement with the legal principle which condemns any perpetual engagement. In practice the period of restraint varies from one to ten years. It is to be noted that the employer is free to fix a long-period restriction even for an employee engaged on probation, that is to say, who will remain only a few months in his service. The limitation of area extends frequently not only to the whole country but even to foreign countries.

Any contract providing for a general and permanent restraint is considered null and void.

In *Germany*, both for commercial and for technical employees, the radius agreement must not place too great obstacles as regards time, area, or object in the way of the employee's future career. For commercial employees the duration of the agreement may not exceed two years.

In *Great Britain* an agreement in restraint of trade must satisfy the following conditions : it must be reasonable, it must be founded on good consideration, and it must not be too vague. A contract not to divulge a trade secret may be reasonable although unlimited as to space and time, but in no case has an absolutely unlimited restriction been under consideration.

The reasonableness of an area of restraint depends upon the nature of the business to be protected and the manner in which it is carried on. Where it is a business carried on by a small number of people with clients widely distributed, a very large area will be allowed, and a wider restraint may be reasonable in the case of a business carried on by agents or correspondents than in the case of one necessitating constant attendance in person.

A restraint extending beyond the United Kingdom or even over the whole world may be reasonable if the covenantee's business is such as to require so extensive a protection.

In *Hungary* the limits of the restraint of competition as regards both time and place are examined by the courts in each particular case.

In *Luxemburg* the extent of the restraint of competition is fixed according to the following principle : this restraint, taking into account the object, time, and place, and also the commercial interest of the employer in its observance, must not make it too difficult for the employee to find a livelihood.

In the *Netherlands* the restraint may or may not be limited to a certain period and a certain area. The duration of the agreement generally varies between one and five years. The restraint as regards place is sometimes limited to the neighbouring country, sometimes to the whole

of Europe, and in some cases no limit whatsoever is specified. The restraint may be limited to the place of residence of the employer or to one or more provinces.

In *Poland* everything depends on the nature of the undertaking in which the employee is engaged. If this undertaking is practically free from competition, the restraint of competition extends to the whole of the country and abroad. In other cases the agreement is valid only within the country.

In *Spain* the area to which the restraint applies varies with the nature and conditions of the trade or industry. It does not seem that the period of restraint ever exceeds five years.

In *Switzerland* the duration of the radius agreement is generally one year, in particular when the employer considers that after that period the employee will no longer be in a position to derive any benefit from the special knowledge acquired in the firm. Two years is the maximum period imposed in commerce. In industry, where methods of manufacture or other important processes are considered secret, an agreement for a period of three or four years is sometimes imposed. The area, in particular for travellers, is generally limited to the districts (town or canton) where the traveller carried on his activity during the period of his contract. In firms working with foreign countries the restraint may extend to those countries.

In the *United States* the courts consider that each case must be considered separately in view of the facts and the particular circumstances surrounding it. In cases which have been before them and in which the agreement has been upheld as legal, the period of restraint has varied from a few months to several years. The greater number are for periods of five years or less. As regards the area to which the restraint extends, the agreements generally define it as the city, county, or State, the route on which the employee travelled, the district within which the employers' clients lived, or an area within ten miles of a certain spot.

Special Measures to prevent the Divulging of Trade or Business Secrets

In most countries there are no special regulations against divulging or using trade secrets. The employer is protected by the prohibition of competition, but it is obvious that he has always the possibility of taking action for damages against his former employee if the latter has injured him by divulging trade secrets which he had learnt when in his employment. This is the case in Austria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Luxemburg, Poland, Spain, and Switzerland. A commercial employee is in a similar position with regard to using his connection with the clients of his former employer as is the technical employee with regard to the manufacturer for whom he worked.

Certain countries, on the contrary, have special provisions on trade

secrets, which supplement the protection afforded by the prohibition of competition; in some cases these special provisions are included in the Penal Code.

In *Belgium* the Act of 7 August 1922 on contracts of employment (section 20, subsection 2) states that "both during the currency of the contract and after its termination the employee shall refrain from divulging to any competitor or other person any manufacturing or business secrets of the head of the undertaking and from committing or being accessory to any other act of unfair competition".

In *Brazil* section 192 of the Penal Code states that the revelation of a secret which has become known to the employee in the course of his work or occupation shall be punished by imprisonment for from one to three months and by loss of employment for from six months to a year.

In *Italy* under the Decree of 13 November 1924 the employee may not, even after the expiry of his contract of employment, make use of any knowledge acquired during his work in the service of an employer in order to engage in disloyal competition with this employer. The word "knowledge" must be understood in a very wide sense. An employee is not guilty of disloyal competition if on leaving one firm he offers to another, even a competitor of the first firm, those professional capacities which he has acquired in the service of the first firm. He is, however, considered guilty of disloyal competition if he makes the new firm benefit by any secret process of manufacture which he has learnt in the first firm.

In *Japan* certain contracts of employment contain a clause stipulating that no secret may be divulged either during the period of the contract or after its expiry.

In the *Netherlands* section 272 of the Penal Code states that any person who intentionally publishes a secret which has become known to him as a result of his occupation or his present or previous situation shall be punished by imprisonment for not more than six months or a fine of not more than 600 gulden.

In the *United States*, before the courts will support a clause prohibiting an employee from competing with his former employer, it must be shown that the restraint to be imposed is reasonably necessary to protect the employer against the unjust use or disclosure of trade secrets or of lists of customers acquired by the employee in the course of his employment. There must be a breach of confidence as well as a breach of contract.

Compensating Advantages

In the majority of cases the restraint of competition applies only to technicians or employees who are in receipt of a high salary. It is in fact the importance of their position which to some extent may justify the undertakings to which they are asked to subscribe in the radius agreement. In certain countries (Germany, Poland) compensation is provided for the restraint imposed.

In *Austria* it is difficult to state whether an employee is given any advantages in his contract of employment to compensate him for the radius agreement, because such agreements appear almost exclusively in contracts with higher-grade employees who already receive a higher salary on account of their position. It would be a misstatement to say that the higher salary was the result of the radius agreement; it would perhaps be more correct to say that the radius agreement is justified by the higher position of the employee. The contracts sometimes stipulate that compensation shall be paid during the period when competition is prohibited.

In *Belgium* as a general rule no compensation is provided for the restraint of competition.

In *Czechoslovakia* the radius agreement applies only to employees with managing duties, who already receive a higher salary on account of their position.

In *Denmark* no special compensation is ever provided for the radius agreement.

In *France* it is rare for compensation to be granted to employees who are subject to a radius agreement.

In *Germany* the prohibition of competition must be compensated for by payment to the employee during the period of prohibition of a sum for each year equal to at least half the last salary received by the employee under his contract.

The regulations concerning this compensation are found in sections 74 (*b*) and 74 (*c*) of the Commercial Code, which run as follows :

74 (*b*). The indemnity due to an employee under section 74 of the Commercial Code must be paid at the end of each month.

If part of the income to which the employee is entitled in terms of his contract consists in a commission or in other variable payments, the indemnity will be calculated on the average for the last three years. If the provisions of the contract concerning the remuneration referred to above have been in existence for less than three years at the moment when the contract of employment expires, the indemnity will be calculated on the average for the period during which the said provisions have been in force. No account will be taken in calculating the indemnity of any particular payments intended to cover special expenses incurred by the employee in the course of his employment.

74 (*c*). In calculating the indemnity, account will be taken of the amount earned by the employee by hiring his services to a third party during the period for which the indemnity is being paid, or of the amount which he voluntarily refuses to earn during this period, provided always that the indemnity, including the amount referred to above, exceeds by more than a tenth (or a quarter if the prohibition of competition has forced the employee to change his residence) the last salary received by the employee under the contract. The employee is not entitled to any indemnity while he is serving a term of imprisonment. If the employer asks it the employee must give him information as to the amount he is earning.

In *Hungary* compensation is sometimes provided for in the contracts.

In the *Netherlands* there is no legal provision for the payment of higher salaries, indemnities, etc., in compensation for the radius agreement. In undertakings where the radius agreement applies to the whole or part of the staff, for example to the technical staff, the conditions are the same for all without regard to salary.

In *Poland* section 10, subsection 1, of the Act of 16 March 1928 provides that an indemnity must be paid at the end of each month at latest.

In *Spain* an employee who has to accept a radius agreement generally receives a higher salary and a bonus in the form of a percentage on profits.

In *Switzerland* the employee has no right to a higher salary or to compensation. But as Swiss law recognises radius agreements only in cases where the employee has a knowledge of his employer's customers or secrets and can hence do him considerable injury, these agreements are generally limited to " higher-grade " employees, that is to say, to employees with a high salary, a share in the profits, or a percentage of the turnover. Thus the prohibition of competition is in fact compensated for by a higher salary. It is also usual to pay part of the salary if, after the expiry of the contract, the employee does not succeed in finding a suitable post.

In the *United States* it is not possible to say how far the salary of an employee who has signed a contract of employment including a radius clause is affected by this clause. The courts, however, consider the salary paid, and if it is low they may refuse to enforce the radius agreement.

Special Provisions in case of Breach of the Contract of Employment

Only certain countries have legislative provisions on the effects of breach of the contract of employment so far as concerns the radius clause.

In *Austria* section 37 of the Act of 11 May 1921 contains the following provisions :

If the employer is guilty of conduct justifying the employee in leaving his employment prematurely or giving notice to leave, his rights against the employee based upon the competition clause shall not be enforceable.

This provision shall also apply to cases where the employer dismisses the employee, unless the employee is guilty of conduct justifying the employer in doing so or unless the employer at the time of the termination of the employment undertook to pay the employee the remuneration last due to him during the continuance of the restriction.

In *Czechoslovakia* the Act of 16 January 1910, section 37, states that the employer cannot claim his rights in virtue of the radius clause if,

through his fault, he has given the employee reason to leave his employment before the proper time or to cancel the contract.

The position is the same when the employer cancels the contract, unless the employee has been at fault or unless the employer, when cancelling the contract, states his intention to pay the employee during the whole period of restraint the remuneration which he was earning at the termination of his employment.

In *Denmark* section 38, paragraph 2, of the Act of 8 May 1917 provides that if an employee in a shop or in any other undertaking has signed an agreement not to compete with his employer, to come into force after the expiry of his contract of employment, this agreement will be void if the employee is dismissed without having given the employer just cause for his dismissal, or if he leaves his employment himself because the employer has given him due cause for leaving by not observing the obligations he had contracted towards him.

In *Germany* sections 75 and 75 (*a*) of the Commercial Code contain the following provisions :

75. If the employee breaks his contract for the reasonable motives stated in sections 70 and 71 of the Commercial Code, the prohibition of competition becomes void provided that the employee states in writing within a month after the date of the cancellation of the contract that he does not consider himself bound by that clause.

The radius clause also becomes void when the employer cancels the contract, unless the employee himself provides an obvious reason for such cancellation, or the employer at the moment of cancelling the contract declares himself ready to pay the employee during the period of restraint the whole of the salary to which he was last entitled. In this case the provisions for calculating the indemnity specified above shall apply *mutatis mutandis*.

If the employer breaks the contract for the reasonable motives stated in sections 70-72, the employee is not entitled to any indemnity.

75 (*a*). The employer may, before the expiry of the contract of employment, undertake in writing to renounce all prohibition of competition, stipulating that at the end of the year following the termination of the contract he shall be released from the obligation to pay the indemnity.

In the *Netherlands* section 1637 X, paragraph 3, of the Civil Code provides that the employer cannot claim his rights under an agreement when he has terminated the service of his employees in an illegal manner or when he has intentionally given the employees a reasonable motive for terminating their service and they have taken advantage of this opportunity. The position is the same when the judge, at the request of the employee, has declared the contract of employment broken for a reasonable motive due to the fault of the employer.

In *Poland* the Act of 16 March 1928, section 10, paragraph 3, states that the radius agreement loses its validity if the contract of employment has been broken through the fault of the employer, or if the last remuneration of the employee did not exceed 6,000 zlotys per year.

If the employee is dismissed through his own fault, he loses all claim to the indemnity provided for in section 10 of the Act quoted.

In *Switzerland* the prohibition of competition ceases if it is proved that the employer has no real interest in its maintenance. The employer cannot take legal proceedings for breach of contract by the employee if he has cancelled the contract without any justification having been given by the latter, or if, through his own fault, he has given the employee reasonable grounds for cancelling the contract (section 360 of the Code of Obligations).

Contraventions

In certain countries the radius agreement provides for penalties in case of breach of the agreement. When no such penalties are provided, the courts decide, if necessary, the damages to be paid by the offender.

In *Austria*, section 37 of the Salaried Employees Act of 11 May 1921 provides that if the employee has agreed to pay a fine in case of contravention of the radius clause, the employer may claim only the fine so fixed, and no further claim for reparation or compensation for injury shall be allowed.

In *Czechoslovakia*, section 37, paragraph 3, of the Act of 16 January 1910 provides that when the employee has promised, in case of breach of the radius agreement, to pay a fine fixed in the contract, the employer may claim only the fine incurred and may not claim any further damages.

In *Germany* sections 75 (*c*) and 75 (*d*) of the Commercial Code apply in case of contravention. The provisions of these sections are as follows :

75 (*c*). If a commercial employee has promised to pay damages in case of non-fulfilment of his undertakings, the employer can claim his rights only if he observes the provisions of section 340 of the Civil Code. The provisions of the Civil Code relating to the reduction of excessive damages are not modified.

If the validity of the agreement is not dependent on the employer's obligation to pay an indemnity to the employee, then the employer can claim only the value of the injury caused. When the employee has undertaken to pay damages as provided in the above paragraphs, the employer may not claim reparation for any injury caused later.

75 (*d*). The employer cannot appeal to a clause making an exemption to the above provisions and prejudicial to the commercial employee. This provision applies also to contraventions which aim at evading, either by reciprocal compensation or in any other way, the provisions of the law on the minimum indemnity.

In the *Netherlands* section 1637 X, paragraph 4, of the Civil Code states that when the employer has stipulated the damages to be paid by his employees for any contravention of their undertakings, the court may reduce these damages if it considers the amount fixed by the employer excessive.

In *Switzerland* the penal clause in case of contravention of the prohibition of competition is regulated as follows by section 359 of the Code of Obligations :

Anyone who infringes a prohibition of competition is responsible towards his former employer for any injury resulting from this contravention. When the prohibition is accompanied by a penal clause the employee may, as a rule, obtain his release on paying to the employer the amount of the penalty. He is, however, bound to make good any injury in excess of the amount of the fine.

In exceptional cases when the employer has expressly and in writing reserved the right to do so, he may, in addition to claiming the agreed penalty and any supplementary damages that may be due, demand that the agreement terminate when such a step is justified in view of the interests which have been injured or threatened and in view of the employee's conduct.

Tendencies of Judicial Practice

It would appear that in most countries judicial practice is definitely favourable to the employees. It is especially in countries where there are no precise legislative provisions that it is of interest to know the general rules established by the courts.

In *Belgium*, before the Act of 7 August 1922 on contracts of employment, no legislation alluded to the radius agreement. General principles did not recognise the right to deprive an employee of the freedom to work. This freedom was protected by the practice of the civil courts, which cancelled any engagements contracted to its detriment. The question whether this freedom had been attacked was a question of fact. The courts considered that it had been attacked when, after the expiry of the contract, the employee was prohibited from accepting employment with a competitor, either because the duration of the prohibition was too long or because the prohibition covered too large an area. For example, the courts would certainly have considered illegal the contracts which the large Belgian industrial undertakings made their employees sign, preventing them for a period of five years from accepting employment in a similar industry in any of the countries mentioned in the contract, which, in fact, included all the industrial countries.

At present radius agreements for employees earning less than 12,000 francs are declared void (section 20, paragraph 1, of the Act of 7 August 1922). As regards higher-grade employees whose contracts of employment may include radius clauses, the practice of the courts is to give decisions which are favourable to them.

In *Denmark* the courts tend to reduce considerably the damages which employees have to pay under radius agreements.

In *France* the courts recognise the legality of a radius agreement on the ground that it is in accord with the legitimate interests of the employer who wishes to protect himself against any use a former employee might make of processes, methods, or secrets of manufacture

which he may have learned during his work or, in the case of a commercial employee, of his relations with the customers. In exchange for the prohibition imposed on the employee the latter should benefit by special advantages. As in practice numerous abuses occur to the detriment of the employee, the courts show a marked tendency to prevent these abuses. Their practice is based in general on sections 1131 *et seqq.* and section 1780 of the Civil Code, which permit courts to cancel any agreements contrary to good morals or to public policy. The rule accepted by the courts is that a radius agreement is valid only if its application is limited as regards the object (kind of work), and either the time or the place.

In the *Netherlands* there are great variations in judicial practice. The only point on which there seems to be agreement is that the radius clause must not entirely deprive the worker of all possibility of carrying on his occupation. The court often determines the scope of the clause and fixes the amount of compensation due in case of contravention, taking into account the position occupied by the person concerned. It is only in very rare cases, however, that the agreement is cancelled.

In *Switzerland* the occupational courts (industrial arbitration courts) are very seldom called upon to give a decision on the application of sections 356-360 of the Code of Obligations, because the demands which are sanctioned by these provisions are generally for higher sums than these courts are competent to deal with. Even the ordinary law courts are seldom in a position to deal with disputes of this type. From judgments delivered from 1919 to 1927 it appears, however, that the tendency of the courts is to base their decisions on the spirit of the legislation, which is to prevent the economic career of any subordinate employee from being compromised. The courts also take account of the position which the employee occupies in the undertaking, of his qualifications, and of the amount of his salary.

In fact, the courts uphold the prohibition of competition only when the interests of the employer are involved to a considerable extent. In order that such prohibition may be recognised as valid, the employee must have been in a position to acquire knowledge of trade secrets or to use in competition with his employer his relations with the latter's clients. The employer must, however, in any concrete case prove that the employee could do him considerable injury by making use of his knowledge of the clients or of trade secrets. It must also be determined whether the knowledge of the clients has a commercial value.

The courts apply the definition "competing firm" in a restrictive sense. They do not consider as competing firms those which buy raw materials from the same sources in order to use them for different purposes, even though at the moment of buying the raw materials these firms are in competition. Neither do they consider as competing firms undertakings in the same branch of industry who supply different groups of customers (wholesalers, middlemen, and retailers).

As sections 356 and 357 of the Code of Obligations were intended to protect the employee, the courts in case of doubt give their decision in his favour, in particular if the prohibition of competition would hinder him

from carrying on the occupation for which he has been trained. The restriction of the prohibition of competition is subject to the discretion of the court (section 357), which must fix the reasonable limits of the prohibition, or, in other words, determine the limits within which the prohibition may be considered equitable. The modifications made by the courts in the provisions of contracts may affect the duration, area, or object of the prohibition, or even the nature of the occupation.

Under section 360 of the Code of Obligations the prohibition of competition ceases if it is proved that the employer has no real interest in its maintenance. Proof of this fact is sufficient for the judge to suppress the prohibition. It is also sufficient to prove that the employer has cancelled the contract without reasonable cause having been given by the employee, or that the employer has given the employee reasonable cause for cancelling the contract. The provisions of the law therefore give the judge wide possibilities of using his discretion to do away with any obstacle that might endanger the employee's future career.

The use of the radius agreement is much less widespread than it once was. This is due to the fact that the courts are stricter than formerly in enforcing the legal provisions on the restriction of the prohibition as regards place and time, and also in fixing a reasonable penalty under the contract. In these conditions the inclination to abuse the radius agreement is kept in check.

In the *United States* radius agreements were looked on with considerable disfavour by the courts when cases first came before them. The agreements were considered contrary to public policy and hence invalid. However, the necessity of granting reasonable protection to the interests of the employers led to a change in the attitude of the courts, to the extent of their tolerating these agreements. The courts of equity, however, still hesitated to enforce contracts prohibiting a former employee from working in competition with his former employer. In the early part of the twentieth century there was strong agitation against the methods of carrying on business employed by some large undertakings. This agitation resulted in the enactment of anti-trust legislation in many States of the Union. This legislation made it illegal to agree to abstain from engaging in or continuing business and made the contracts void where persons did so agree. The courts have held, however, that it was not the intention of the legislature to make the radius clause as defined above illegal.

On the whole the tendency is away from, rather than towards, the use of the radius agreement because of the attitude of American employees who dislike agreeing to such a limitation on their freedom. The attitude of the courts, too, does not encourage the employer to use the radius agreement. The public policy test or the test of reasonableness may, in fact, nullify the contract. Even if this is not the case the courts generally tend to favour the employees.

The Regulation of Hours of Work in Germany in 1927

The reports of the Factory and Mines Inspectorate on the administration of German labour legislation in 1927[1] contain a certain amount of general information regarding the regulation of hours of work.

During the period covered by the report important amendments have been made in the legislation on hours of work. Thus, the Order of 21 December 1923 has been amended and supplemented by the Emergency Act of 14 April 1927, and the Administrative Regulations of 17 April 1924 have been amended by those of 29 April 1927. As a result there have been certain difficulties in enforcing the legislation, increased by the fact that the employers had not yet completely adapted their undertakings to the provisions of the Order of 1923. In accordance with the Administrative Regulations at present in force, for example, official authorisation for working overtime beyond 48 hours per week can be granted only if it has proved impossible to arrive at a collective agreement; consequently, even the smallest undertakings have been compelled to conclude collective agreements. Further, collective agreements frequently contain special provisions concerning the distribution of hours of work, and the inspectors find it difficult to check whether the legal hours are being strictly observed. The report for the State of Baden emphasises the fact that in concluding a collective agreement the contracting parties have to state definitely in what conditions overtime may be worked and what extra pay is given for such work; generally speaking it seems that both parties hesitate to tackle this difficult question directly and wait until circumstances show in any particular case whether overtime is justified or not.

The overtime worked varies considerably from one district to another. The report for Saxony shows that numerous undertakings worked short time at the beginning of 1927; from March onwards 48 hours were worked per week and the number of hours rose towards the end of the year when it was again reduced. The attitude of the workers to overtime often varies in different districts. In the Düsseldorf district the workers' representatives have tried to restrict overtime, while in the Coblentz district, where the employers demand only an 8-hour day, there has been a shortage of labour because the workers preferred to be employed in areas in which they could work overtime and thus obtain extra wages. In the building industry in particular the workers' organisations favour overtime because it compensates for the lack of work during bad weather.

In general the hours of work fixed by collective agreements have been more carefully observed than in preceding years, since the employer

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[1] GERMANY. *Jahresberichte der Gewerbe-Aufsichtsbeamten und Bergbehörden für das Jahr 1927*. Berlin. Reichsdruckerei.

can no longer accept voluntary overtime from his staff. The report for the district of Cassel, however, points out that the legal limit has been exceeded, particularly in small undertakings, because the employers were ignorant of the exact legal provisions in force.

The extra pay for overtime varies in different regions. In Baden rates are generally increased by 10 per cent. from the 49th to the 51st hour, 20 per cent. from the 52nd to the 54th, and 25 per cent. only from the 55th hour onwards. In Saxony the rate of 25 per cent. considered "suitable" by the Act has not yet been reached everywhere, though in the clothing industry it is exceeded. In the whole of the bookbinding industry and the associated occupations, the 5 hours authorised by the national collective agreement in excess of 48 hours are remunerated by a 25 per cent. increase in wages. In metal works in the Leipzig district overtime is paid for by a 20 per cent. increase up to 51 hours per week, and 50 per cent. for the following hours.

As a general rule the legal regulations are more strictly observed in the towns than in the country, where the workers are not employed in industry during the harvest and therefore wish to work overtime during the rest of the year in order to increase their income. An examination of the reports for separate industries shows several interesting facts. In flour milling, the extension of the hours of work can be explained by the keen competition between small and large-scale undertakings. In Saxony there have been numerous complaints concerning hairdressing saloons, which should close at 7 p.m. (8 p.m. on Saturday); formerly the custom was to serve all customers who were in the shop at closing time, but this concession is limited by the new agreement to the fifteen minutes following closing time. Abuses have been reported in hotels, restaurants, and beer shops; in Württemberg the inspectors report that the workers most in need of protection are those whose remuneration consists of tips, since these workers willingly do overtime in order to earn more. In cinemas the hours of work for operators are often too long. The hours of work and the breaks for musicians are generally well observed because collective agreement have been concluded. When no collective agreement exists box office clerks, girl attendants, etc., are generally not entitled to a compensatory rest period for Sunday work. In continuous-process undertakings the three-shift system is spreading. It has been introduced in numerous factories in Upper Silesia. In Brunswick managers of sugar refineries have often even met with opposition from seasonal workers who wish to work more than 8 hours per day. The Orders of 9 February 1927 concerning hours of work in gas factories, metal works, glass factories and glass-cutting works, extending to these undertakings the benefits of section 7 of the Order of 14 April 1927 (forbidding overtime in excess of half an hour beyond the legal limit in unhealthy and dangerous trades) have been carefully observed in Bavaria. In the district of Frankfort-on-the-Oder, on the other hand, the inspectors have noted a certain amount of disorganisation in glass-cutting works, which has been remedied by having recourse to overtime under section 3 of the Emergency Act.

Salaried Employees

The hours of work of salaried employees in factories and banks are generally regulated by collective agreements. This is less generally the case in commerce. The Emergency Act has involved no noticeable change in the conditions of work of this class of workers. Most collective agreements fix hours of work at 48 per week, with the possibility of prolongation in urgent cases up to 51 or 54 hours. Pay for overtime varies, but numerous agreements provide for a 25 per cent. increase. Certain employers have tried to make their employees work voluntarily for 10 hours per day. Others have taken advantage of the difficulty which salaried employees experience in finding employment to demand or connive at a working day of from 12 to 15 hours. Generally speaking, however, the hours of work in banks have been reduced in consequence of the introduction of calculating machines and other technical improvements.

Bakeries

The prohibition of night work in bakeries has been found difficult to enforce in various districts, particularly during the season at watering places and holiday resorts. In the State of Baden there has been an increase in the number of contraventions. The inspectors' report points out that a large section of the population, including the workers, insists on having fresh rolls in the morning. Supervision is difficult, because master-bakers do not open the doors of their shops, which are often situated in side streets and enclosed courtyards. The regulations prohibiting the delivery of bread before 7 a.m. are generally observed.

Shops

The shop closing regulations have as a rule been complied with, except on Christmas Eve and the eves of other important festivals. Certain employers have had their windows dressed in the evening, thus necessitating a prolongation of working hours beyond the regular closing hour. As formerly, the enforcement of the shop closing regulations has met with difficulties, particularly in the country, in many small places where merchants consider that they can keep their shop open after 7 p.m. in order to allow their customers to make their purchases in the evening. According to an enquiry carried out in the State of Baden, shops not in the main streets have not observed the closing regulations.

The weekly rest period has been observed except, as formerly, in small places where country customers wish to make their purchases on Sunday. The wish to meet the needs of these customers has induced shopkeepers to contravene the regulations. Commercial establishments with no employees have also given rise to complaints by business rivals, who demand that permission for Sunday trading should be extended to all shops. The compensatory holidays to which workers are entitled for Sunday work have given rise to various abuses. The

employers consider that they fulfil their obligations if they prolong the annual holiday or grant compensation in cash or in kind. At the request of the inspectors, the keeping of a register of Sunday work and compensatory holidays is gradually becoming general.

The closing of shops and the Sunday rest period are closely connected with the question whether automatic machines should not be subject to the same legal regulations as commercial undertakings. A report on this subject has been sent to the Ministry of National Economy. In the opinion of the Württemberg factory inspectors, the need for developing the sale of goods by automatic machines is not widely felt. On the other hand, the German automatic machine industry maintains that any privileges granted to it would be compensated for by increase in consumption and an improvement in the labour market. At the same time it must be remembered that such a step would have economic and social disadvantages, since it would make it more difficult to administer the shop hours and Sunday rest regulations.

The Growth of the Trade Union Movement in Soviet Russia from 1925 to 1928

The following information is taken from records of enquiries published in *Statistika Trooda* (Labour Statistics).[1] It relates to 1 October 1925, 1 January 1927, and 1 January 1928, at which dates the total numbers of trade unionists were respectively 7,846,800, 9,624,800, and 10,381,400.

The following table shows the variations in the numbers of trade union and inter-trade union bodies.[2]

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[1] *Statistika Trooda*, No. 3 of 1926, Nos. 9-10 of 1927, and No. 7 of 1928.

[2] It may be recalled that the 23 trade unions in the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics are constituted in the following manner. The basic or primary body is the factory committee (for the various kinds, see below), elected by all the trade unionists employed in an undertaking; it is laid down that there shall be only one such committee for any single undertaking. When the number of trade unionists employed is too small for a committee to be formed, they may elect a delegate to represent them. Within any primary administrative area (district or circumscription) the factory committees of a union are grouped together as a subsection or secondary body of the union. Within a secondary administrative area (department or province) the various subsections come under a section or tertiary body of the union. Finally, the union as a whole is controlled, between the congresses, by a central committee.

In addition to the trade union bodies enumerated above, there are inter-trade union bodies. The general activities of the 23 unions are directed by the Central Federal Council. Inter-trade union councils (of a Republic, departmental, or provincial) direct the working of the corresponding trade union sections: and inter-trade union district offices (representing districts or circumscriptions) direct the working of the corresponding trade union subsections. Finally, where the members of various unions are too few to form primary bodies, they are grouped under local secretariats, which later on are to be suppressed.

NUMBER OF TRADE UNION AND INTER-TRADE UNION BODIES IN 1925, 1927, AND 1928

Kind of body	1 Oct. 1925	1 Jan. 1927	1 Jan. 1928
Trade union bodies :			
Factory committees	51,237	64,917	69,362
Subsections	3,725	3,768	3,373
Sections	1,155	1,118	989
Central committees	23	23	23
Total	56,140	69,826	73,747
Inter-trade union bodies :			
Local secretariats	914	507	314
Inter-trade union offices	725	506	480
Inter-trade union councils	75	75	60
District council offices	4	2	–
Central federal trade union council	1	1	1
Total	1,719	1,091	855
Grand total	57,859	70,917	74,602
Committee delegates	34,261	36,542	34,172

The most striking fact shown by this table is the steady increase in the number of trade union bodies in general and the decrease in the number of inter-trade union and higher trade union bodies. Indeed, the increase in the number of trade union bodies in general is almost wholly due to the multiplication of factory committees — i.e. the primary trade union bodies which are in direct contact with the trade unionists. The decrease in the number of higher bodies is related to the political administrative reorganisation, which resulted in the suppression of a certain number of departments and districts in 1927.

Comparison of the increase in the total number of bodies with the increase in the number of trade union members shows the two movements to be almost parallel.

	1 October 1925		1 January 1927		1 January 1928	
	Absolute number	Index number	Absolute number	Index number	Absolute number	Index number
Trade union members	7,846,800	100	9,624,800	122	10,381,400	132
Bodies	57,859	100	70,917	122	74,602	129

A more detailed examination of the figures shows that the increase in the number of trade union bodies is most considerable in agriculture, public services, and the building industry, as will be seen from the table

below. It should be noted that this table covers only the primary bodies, which, however, represent 95 per cent. of the total.

NUMBER OF FACTORY COMMITTEES IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES, 1925 AND 1928

Branch of industry	1 October 1925		1 January 1928	
	Absolute number	Index number	Absolute number	Index number
Agriculture	11,840	100	17,937	150
Industry	8,302	100	9,744	117
Building	1,872	100	2,513	134
Transport and commerce	7,370	100	8,323	113
Public services	19,544	100	28,090	143
Various	2,309	100	2,755	119
Total or average	51,237	100	69,362	135

The relative increase in the number of primary bodies in agriculture is due to the fact that the agricultural workers' union, wishing to reach the largest possible number of wage earners, has for some time been establishing new local committees with that object in view. The increase for the public services is principally within the union of administrative and commercial employees and the union of public health officials, both of which proceeded to reclassify their members in 1927.

The result of these modifications in the system of primary bodies was a very slight fall in the average number of members represented by a committee — from 144 in 1927 to 142 in 1928. The average, however, varies considerably in different unions. For example, in the textile industry, which has some very large undertakings, the average is about 1,000, while in agriculture it is about 60. Moreover, certain committees within an individual union may represent more than 1,000, or even more than 5,000, workers. Thus 27.8 per cent. of the committees in the textile industry and 15.8 per cent. of those in the mining industry represent more than 1,000 workers. It will be seen that some of these primary bodies thus represent very large groups of workers. Among agricultural workers, on the contrary, committees representing more than 200 workers are very rare (3.9 per cent.); this is also true for employees in public services (5.9 per cent.). Further, it is to be observed that variations in the size and nature of the undertakings or establishments concerned have resulted in different forms and names being given to the bodies representing them. For example, up to the present the primary bodies have been consistently referred to in this article as "factory committees": in reality, however, there are factory (or works) committees in industry,

"local committees" for certain administrative groups of public officials, and "group committees" (covering several undertakings) in small-scale industry or for small institutions. In agriculture the usual form of organisation is the "workers' committee"; this also obtains to a certain extent in the building industry and among local transport undertakings. There are also "professional committees" for students. Finally, there is another and quite special form of body which has some of the features of both a secondary body and a group committee; this is the cantonal committee, which is not related to any definite economic unit (undertaking or group of undertakings) but to an administrative unit (canton or *volost*). This form of committee is most often found in agricultural workers' unions and in those of administrative and commercial employees. The following table shows the distribution by industry of the various kinds of committee as at 15 January 1928.

DISTRIBUTION BY INDUSTRY OF THE VARIOUS KINDS OF COMMITTEE, 15 JANUARY 1928

Branch of industry	Kind of committee						
	Factory	Local (administrative employees)	Group	Workers	Professional	Cantonal	Total
Agriculture	—	1,275	—	13,685	285	2,655	17,900
Industry	6,131	768	2,176	12	273	3	9,363
Building	276	88	1,047	1,095	—	—	2,506
Transport and commerce	12	7,203	271	645	150	—	8,281
Public services	11	13,247	9,560	—	804	4,174	27,796
Various	—	1,359	993	—	6	75	2,433
Total	6,430	23,940	14,047	15,437	1,518	6,907	68,279[1]

[1] This total differs from the figure given above (69,382) owing to the fact that committees acting as sections (117) and subsections (966) are excluded.

The average number of trade unionists for a factory committee is 459; the corresponding figure for a local committee is 108, for a group committee 92, for a workers' committee 85, and for a professional committee 160.

In many cases, where the groups of trade unionists were too small, the place of factory committees has been taken by trade union delegates; the total number of these delegates, as already mentioned, varies round about 35,000. It will be noticed, however, that in most branches the number of delegates is rapidly decreasing. For example, in industry

the number fell from 4,617 in 1925 to 2,758 in 1927, and again to 2,329 in 1928; in transport it fell from 5,413 to 4,272, and then to 3,667. About the only increase in the number of delegates has been in agriculture, where the total rose from 5,447 to 14,556, falling later to 11,433; while in the union of administrative and commercial employees it fell from 7,604 to 6,751, afterwards rising to 8,424.

Each delegate represents on an average 14 trade unionists; the average is highest in the union o workers in the food and drink industries (31) and lowest in that of the post and telegraph workers (11).

Higher Trade Union Bodies

It has been seen that the number of higher trade union bodies has steadily decreased since 1925. According to the detailed statistics, the unions of metal workers, boatmen, miners, and workers in the printing industry seem to form exceptions to this tendency. This, however, is only apparent and is due to the fact that for these occupational groups the factory committees acting as sections or subsections were not mentioned separately in the earlier statistics.

This decrease in the number of higher bodies together with the increase in the total number of trade unionists gives rise to a noticeable increase in the number of members belonging to each of the higher bodies. The available figures are incomplete and do not cover all the higher bodies; in the following table, however, an attempt has been made to indicate the percentage distribution of the higher bodies according to their membership in 1927 and 1928 respectively.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF HIGHER TRADE UNION BODIES BY MEMBERSHIP IN 1927 AND 1928

Number of trade unionists represented	Sections		Subsections	
	1927	1928	1927	1928
Under 100	0.8	—	5.2	3.0
101-250	4.2	3.1	16.4	14.3
251–500	10.9	6.2	20.8	20.6
501–1,000	13.2	11.9	21.3	22.6
1,001–3,000	25.9	25.6	24.7	26.9
3,001–5,000	12.0	11.5	5.8	6.4
5,001–10,000	13.9	14.6	3.7	4.0
Over 10,000	19.1	27.1	2.1	2.2

It will be seen from this table that subsections with a membership of under 100 are becoming rare; the great majority have from 100 to 3,000 members. None of the sections have fewer than 100 members, and most of them have more than 1,000.

A similar tendency is found among the inter-trade union bodies. The figures available for inter-trade union offices (representing districts or circumscriptions) are, however, very incomplete, and only percentages are therefore given in the table below.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF INTER-TRADE UNION OFFICES BY MEMBERSHIP IN 1927 AND 1928

Number of trade unionists represented	Per cent. of all offices		Per cent. of all trade unionists	
	1927	1928	1927	1928
Under 3,000	19.1	14.5	2.7	1.6
3,001–5,000	18.3	16.0	5.3	3.7
5,001–10,000	26.5	24.5	14.0	10.3
Over 10,000	36.1	45.0	78.0	84.4

The figures relating to the inter-trade union councils (departmental or provincial) are almost complete; they are available for 59 councils out of 60 for 1928 and for 74 out of 75 for 1927.

DISTRIBUTION OF INTER-TRADE UNION COUNCILS BY MEMBERSHIP IN 1927 AND 1928

Number of trade unionists represented	Number of councils				Aggregate number of members			
	1927		1928		1927		1928	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Number (thousands)	Per cent.	Number (thousands)	Per cent.
Under 10,000	10	13.5	2	3.4	44	0.4	15	0.1
10,001–25,000	11	14.9	8	13.6	189	2.0	133	1.3
25,001–50,000	14	18.9	11	18.7	487	5.0	398	3.9
50,001–100,000	18	24.3	13	22.0	1,315	13.7	924	8.9
100,001–200,000	11	14.9	15	25.4	1,442	15.0	2,070	20.0
Over 200,000	10	13.5	10	16.9	6,148	63.9	6,803	65.8
Total	74	100.0	59	100.0	9,625	100.0	10,343	100.0

Partly because of the increase in the number of members and partly because of the administrative reorganisation of certain regions, inter-trade union councils grouping only a small number of members are gradually disappearing.

* * *

The general characteristics of the trade union movement in Soviet Russia are thus : (*a*) an increase in the number of lower bodies — i.e. those in direct contact with the workers, especially in those branches of industry where labour is scattered (agriculture, public services in rural districts, etc.); (*b*) a diminution or concentration of bodies having a distinctly administrative character, and not in direct contact with the workers ; (*c*) stability of the proportion between the number of members and the number of trade union bodies.

These features seem to indicate that trade unionists are still engaged in simplifying the administration of the trade union system in accordance with the decision taken in 1922 for reasons of economy. A definite statement to this effect, however, could not be made without comparing the total numbers of trade union officials at the various dates considered.

STATISTICS

Recent Wage Changes in Various Countries[1]

Italy

The data used for compiling the tables below are as follows :

(*a*) Average nominal hourly earnings in the principal industries, ascertained during enquiries carried out by the General Directorate of Labour, Social Welfare, and Credit of the Ministry of National Economy in May 1925 and March 1928. These hourly earnings have been calculated by dividing the total sums paid to the workers, both for normal hours and for overtime, during the periods covered by the enquiries, by the total number of hours worked during these periods.

(*b*) Nominal weekly wage rates, calculated on a basis of 48 hours' work, for certain occupations at Rome, Milan, and Florence. The initial rates on which these figures are based are those fixed by collective agreements ; the data have been collected by the statistical offices of the cities in question.

(*c*) Nominal hourly or daily wage rates of certain categories of agricultural workers in various provinces. These rates are also fixed by collective agreements.

Manufacturing Industries

Table I gives average nominal hourly earnings in the principal industries in May 1925 and March 1928. It seems that these figures may be taken as significant, as they are the result of two important enquiries, carried out in May 1925[2] and March 1928, and dealing respectively with 763,043 workers in 4,486 industrial establishments, and 868,774 workers in 4,692 establishments. It will be noticed that the highest average hourly earnings are those of workers in the iron and steel and the automobile industries, while the lowest are found in

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[1] For previous articles in this series cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVII, No. 5, May 1928 (Great Britain) ; No. 6, June (France, Belgium) ; Vol. XVIII, No. 1, July (Denmark, Norway, Sweden) ; No. 2, Aug. (Spain) ; No. 3, Sept. (Netherlands, Switzerland) ; Nos. 4-5, Oct.-Nov. (Germany) ; No. 6, Dec. (Austria, Poland) ; Vol. XIX, No. 1, Jan. 1929 (Czechoslovakia, Hungary) ; No. 2, Feb. (United States) ; No. 3, March (Australia, New Zealand, Union of South Africa).

[2] *Salari Orari nelle Industrie* (*Maggio-Agosto* 1925). Reprinted from the *Bollettino del Lavoro*, May-June 1925. Rome, 1926. XXI + 323 pp. For summary cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 1, Jan. 1927, pp. 98-103 : " Wages and Hours of Work in Italian Industry in 1925 ".

certain branches of the textile industry, probably partly because these branches employ a large number of women. The statistics also show that in the thirteen branches of industry considered in the 1925 enquiry, the level of average nominal hourly earnings was about 5 per cent. lower in March 1928 than in May 1925.

It would be interesting to compare this reduction of hourly earnings with the fall in the cost of living. Unfortunately, index numbers of the cost of living for the whole country are not available, so that such a comparison is difficult. However, assuming that the average index numbers of the cost of living in five large towns (Florence, Milan, Rome, Turin, and Venice) are sufficiently representative of the movement of the cost of living in the country as a whole, we find, on comparing the average index for May 1925 (134.8; base : July 1920 = 100) with that for March 1928 (130.1), that the cost of living was nearly 3.5 per cent lower in March 1928 than in May 1925. Although the value of this figure is only indicative, it is probably safe to take it as giving a good approximate idea of the fall in the cost of living in Italy from May 1925 to March 1928.

Table II shows, for all the industries covered by the 1928 enquiry, the average nominal hourly earnings in March 1928 in each of the various provinces. It will be noticed that the highest figures are those for Liguria and Lombardy (northern Italy) and the lowest those for Basilicata and Calabria (southern Italy).

Table III (*a*) gives the levels of nominal wages in Rome in certain occupations, at different dates from July 1924 to the beginning of 1929. It will be seen that during this period nominal wages were highest in July 1926 or January 1927. From the beginning of 1927 (practically the period of the revalorisation of the Italian currency) they began to fall almost uniformly in all the occupations considered, and reached a minimum during the first half of 1928. Since then there has been a definite tendency to stabilisation.

Table III (*b*) gives corresponding figures for Milan, which show a very similar movement to the figures for Rome. It will however be noted that nominal wages in printing and bookbinding continued to show a tendency to fall until the beginning of 1929.

Table III (*c*) gives the levels of nominal wages for the same occupations in Florence, but only for the months of January and June 1928, figures for previous years not being available.

Comparison of the nominal wages given in tables III (*a*), III (*b*), and III (*c*) shows that the wages of printing and bookbinding workers were higher than those of building or engineering workers. It will also be noted that wages were higher in Milan than in Rome, and higher in Rome than in Florence, except for the nominal wages in force in the printing and bookbinding trades.

Tables III (*a*) and III (*b*) also give the index numbers of the cost of living in Rome and Milan for the dates to which the wage statistics refer. From these figures general conclusions can be drawn as to the level of real wages in these two cities.

Agriculture

Agricultural workers in Italy are divided into three main categories :

(*a*) Permanent workers (*salariati*), usually engaged by the year and living on the farm. They are paid by the month or by the year, partly in cash and partly in kind. The tables below do not concern this category of agricultural workers, their wages being largely composed of payments in kind whose value cannot be estimated here.

(*b*) " Tied " workers (*obbligati*), engaged for specified periods as and when they are needed ; they remain always at the disposal of the same employer, who assures them certain advantages. They are paid by the hour or by the day, almost always in cash, at least as to the greater part of their wages.

(*c*) Independent or jobbing workers (*avventizi*), also engaged for specified periods as and when they are wanted, but without permanent obligation to any particular employer. They are paid in the same way as the " tied " workers, but at slightly higher rates.

The wages of agricultural workers vary very considerably in different regions, on account of the differences in agricultural conditions. In order to give an idea of these wages, tables IV and V show the rates fixed by collective agreements concluded between employers' and workers' organisations in certain provinces considered typical. For general work (table IV) only summer and winter rates are given, though in certain regions a different rate is fixed for the intermediate periods, usually an average between the figures shown here. For special work (vine and olive growing, etc.) (table V), the rates fixed by collective agreements do not differ with the season. It should also be pointed out that only the wage rates for ordinary workers are considered ; certain specialists receive higher wages than those shown in the tables. Collective agreements sometimes fix higher rates for overtime and work done on public holidays.

Table IV gives nominal hourly wage rates in summer and winter for independent and " tied " workers in certain provinces, for general work. Table V gives nominal daily rates for independent workers in certain southern provinces for special work, such as vine and olive growing, etc., and rates for workers employed on weeding rice fields in the rice-growing zones.

Owing to the absence of figures for previous years no idea of the movement of wages is possible, but the figures in tables IV and V enable comparisons to be made with the wages of industrial workers.

TABLE I. AVERAGE NOMINAL HOURLY EARNINGS IN THE PRINCIPAL ITALIAN INDUSTRIES IN MAY 1925 AND MARCH 1928[1]

Industry	May 1925	March 1928	Index number for March 1928 (May 1925 = 100)
	Lire	Lire	
Silk spinning	1.11	0.99	89.2
Silk weaving	1.84	1.77	96.2
Artificial silk	1.87	1.85	98.9
Cotton	1.74	1.61	92.5
Wool	2.04	1.86	91.2
Flax and hemp	—	1.41	—
Jute	—	1.43	—
Boots and shoes	—	1.36	—
Hosiery	—	1.56	—
Hat manufacture	—	2.66	—
Iron and steel	3.25	3.06	94.2
Foundries	2.85	2.72	95.4
Automobiles	—	3.48	—
Construction and repair of railway material	2.84	2.59	91.2
Construction of electrical motors and material	2.77	2.68	96.8
Specialised machine construction	—	2.86	—
General machine construction	2.45	2.45	100.0
Shipbuilding	2.62	2.64	100.8
India-rubber	—	2.76	—
Phosphates	2.68	2.51	93.7
Tanneries	—	2.56	—
Paper	1.99	1.92	96.5
Cement manufacture	—	2.27	—
Italian paste manufacture	—	1.72	—
Average	—	2.01	—

[1] *Bollettino del Lavoro*, Aug.-Sept. 1928.

TABLE II. AVERAGE NOMINAL HOURLY EARNINGS, BY PROVINCES, IN MARCH 1928[1]

	Lire		Lire
Piedmont	2.15	Campania	1.88
Liguria	2.60	Apulia	1.67
Lombardy	1.96	Basilicata	1.30
Veneto	1.46	Calabria	0.71
Venezia Giulia	2.57	Sicily	1.69
Emilia	1.83	Sardinia	1.67
Tuscany	2.03		
Marches	1.41	Average	2.01
Umbria	2.29		
Latium	2.23		
Abruzzi	1.34		

[1] *Bollettino del Lavoro*. Aug.-Sept. 1928. These figures correspond to the industries enumerated in table I.

TABLE III. AVERAGE NOMINAL WEEKLY WAGE RATES IN CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS IN ROME, MILAN, AND FLORENCE, 1924-1929

(a) *Rome*[1]

Industry and occupation	1924	1925	1926	1927		1928		1929
	1 July	1 July	1 July	1 Jan.	1 July	1 Jan.	1 July	1 Jan.
	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire
Building :								
Masons.	148.80	187.20	201.60	192.00	180.00	163.20	153.60	153.60
Carpenters	148.00	187.20	204.00	192.00	180.00	163.20	153.60	153.60
Joiners	153.60	175.20	187.20	172.80	163.20	153.60	146.40	146.40
Plumbers	144.00	165.60	175.20	168.00	163.20	144.00	144.00	144.00
Painters	212.70	235.20	273.60	257.00	225.60	196.80	180.00	180.00
Labourers	122.40	136.80	153.60	144.00	139.20	117.60	100.80	100.80
Engineering :								
Fitters	144.00	172.80	187.20	172.80	160.80	144.00	136.80	136.80
Ironmoulders	156.00[2]	172.80	187.20	172.80	160.80	146.40	146.40	146.40
Turners	151.20[2]	168.00	177.60	165.60	151.20	141.60	136.80	136.80
Labourers	112.80[2]	115.20	132.00	120.00	110.40	100.80	93.60	93.60
Furniture :								
Cabinet-makers	199.20[2]	235.20	252.00	240.00	206.40	182.40	182.40	182.40
Printing and bookbinding :								
Hand compositors	167.20	174.90	198.00	203.50	188.00	176.00	165.00	165.00
Machine compositors	190.00	198.75	235.20	257.00	225.00	205.00	193.60	193.60
Machine minders	159.60	174.90	198.00	203.50	188.00	176.00	165.00	165.00
Bookbinders	150.00	160.00	180.00	190.00	175.00	165.00	155.00	155.00
Cost-of-living index number (Base : July 1920=100)	124.32	141.67	159.45	162.77	145.96	139.30	141.37	—

[1] Figures communicated monthly to the International Labour Office.

[2] Average of two figures.

TABLE III (*cont.*)

(*b*) *Milan*[1]

Industry and occupation	1924	1925	1926	1927		1928		1929
	1 July	1 July	1 July	1 Jan.	1 July	1 Jan.	1 July	1 Jan.
Building :	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lire
Masons	139.20	174.00	192.00	192.00	172.80	165.60	165.60	165.60
Carpenters	156.00	182.40	201.60	201.60	181.44	172.80	172.80	172.80
Joiners	141.60	168.00	187.20	187.20	168.48	160.80	160.80	160.80
Painters	134.40	190.80	211.20	211.20	182.40	175.20	175.20	175.20
Labourers	93.60	114.60	124.80	124.80	112.32	108.00	108.00	108.00
Engineering :								
Fitters	143.52[2]	155.46	165.06	167.04	154.08	154.08	144.48	144.48
Ironmoulders	154.32[2]	166.50	176.10	178.08	165.12	165.12	155.52	155.52
Turners	140.88[2]	168.00	177.60	179.52	166.56	166.56	156.96	156.96
Labourers	112.32	124.80	134.40	136.32	128.64	128.64	115.20	115.20
Furniture :								
Cabinet-makers	163.20	183.90	200.16	200.16	187.68	187.68	187.68	187.68
Printing and bookbinding :								
Hand compositors	193.47	231.10	253.44	262.56	262.56	217.44	217.44	213.12
Machine compositors	217.04[2]	250.65[2]	273.60[2]	283.20	283.20	237.12[2]	237.12[2]	232.32[2]
Machine minders	195.80	228.00	250.08	259.20	259.20	214.08	214.08	210.72
Bookbinders	198.47	231.10	253.44	262.56	262.56	217.44	217.44	213.12
Cost-of-living index number (Base : July 1920 = 100)	116.23	135.76	148.99	149.18	128.78	121.42	120.03	—

[1] Figures communicated monthly to the International Labour Office.
[2] Average of two figures.

(*c*) *Florence*[1]

Industry and occupation	1928		Industry and occupation	1928	
	Jan.	June		Jan.	June
Building :	Lire	Lire	Furniture making :	Lire	Lire
Masons	153.60	139.20	Cabinet-makers	122.40	151.20
Carpenters	146.40	134.40			
Joiners	—	122.40	Printing and bookbinding :		
Painters	189.60	151.20	Hand compositors	156.00	180.00
Labourers	112.80	—	Machine compositors	195.00[2]	207.00[2]
			Machine minders	162.00	180.00
Engineering :			Bookbinders	150.00	180.00
Fitters	115.20	—			
Ironmoulders	120.00	—			
Turners	115.20	—			
Labourers	86.40	—			

[1] *Bollettino mensile statistico-amministrativo, Comune di Firenze*, Jan. and June 1928.
[2] Average of two figures.

TABLE IV. NOMINAL HOURLY SUMMER AND WINTER WAGE RATES FOR INDEPENDENT AND "TIED" WORKERS EMPLOYED ON GENERAL WORK, IN CERTAIN PROVINCES, AS FIXED BY COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS IN 1928 OR 1929

Category and province	Wage rates		Category and province	Wage rates	
	Summer	Winter		Summer	Winter
	Lire	Lire		Lire	Lire
Independent workers :			"Tied" workers :		
Novara[1]	4.40	2.40	Trieste	1.80	1.60
Trieste	2.00	1.70	Parma[2]	1.85	1.65
Parma[2]	2.05	1.75			

[1] Typical rates for the whole plain of Piedmont, giving an approximate idea of wages in force in this region.
[2] Typical rates for the whole of Upper Emilia.

TABLE V. NOMINAL DAILY WAGE RATES FOR INDEPENDENT WORKERS FOR SPECIAL WORK IN CERTAIN SOUTHERN PROVINCES, AND NOMINAL DAILY WAGE RATES OF WORKERS EMPLOYED ON WEEDING RICE FIELDS IN THE RICE-GROWING ZONES, AS FIXED BY COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS IN 1928 OR 1929

Brindisi[1]	Lire	*Matera (cont.)*	Lire
(*a*) Vine growing :		(*b*) Olive and almond growing :	
Grafting	25.00	Tilling, manuring, grafting	16.00
Planting vineyards	18.00	Pruning	15.20
Vintage	17.00	Hoeing, prevention of vine disease, olive gathering	13.60
Prevention of vine disease	16.00	Almond gathering	12.80
Pruning	15.00	Olive and almond gathering (women and children)	7.20
Hoeing	14.00		
Vintage (women and boys)	8.00	(*c*) Cultivation of wheat and industrial plants :	
Prevention of vine disease (women)	7.00	Threshing	17.60
		Sowing	16.00
(*b*) Olive growing :		Tilling, planting, gathering crops	14.40
Pruning	15.00	Hoeing, weeding, manuring	12.80
Olive gathering (women)	6.00	Hoeing, weeding, manuring, gathering crops (women and children)	8.00
(*c*) Other work :			
Wheat harvest	25.00	(*d*) Forests :	
Market gardening	18.00	Forestry work	14.00[3]
Almond gathering (women)	6.00		
Matera[2]		*Rice-growing Zones of Novara, Vercelli, Milan, Pavia, Mortara, Lodi, and Rome*	
(*a*) Vine growing :			
Planting vineyards	18.40	Rice-fields :	
Grafting	16.00	Weeding	15.00-17.45
Pruning, tilling, manuring, prevention of vine disease, vintage (carrying)	14.40		
Hoeing, vintage (treading)	12.80		
Vintage (women and children)	8.00		

[1] Typical rates for the whole region of Apulia. (Agreement concluded on 10 August 1927 for the period August 1927 to July 1928; no information available as to whether it has been renewed or replaced by another.)
[2] Typical rates for the whole province of Basilicata. (Agreement concluded on 25 October 1927 for the period November 1927 to November 1928; no information available as to whether it has been renewed or replaced by another.)
[3] On job work, from 15 to 18 lire per day.

Employment and Unemployment Index Numbers of the Cost of Living and Retail Prices

The publication of this number of the Review *having been delayed by a strike until after the appearance of the May number, it has seemed useless to repeat the usual statistical tables here, as the more recent data given in the latter number are already in our readers' hands.*

Wage Rates and Retail Food Prices in Various Cities

The following tables give wage and price statistics in various cities for January 1929, in continuation of corresponding tables published in previous numbers of the *Review*. Information is given for 17 cities for wages and 18 for prices, the figures, which relate as a rule to the beginning of the month, having been generally supplied to the International Labour Office by the Department of the Central Government or of the Municipality which compiles these data.

Table I gives money wages, generally based on rates fixed by collective agreements, of typical categories of adult workers in the building, engineering, furniture-making, and printing and bookbinding industries. The figures are calculated on the basis of 48 hours' work, generally at ordinary time rates. Cost-of-living bonuses and family allowances paid in certain cities are as far as possible included. The data are not in all cases strictly comparable. For some cities minimum rates are given, and the rates actually paid are in certain cases somewhat higher.

Table II gives average retail prices of the foodstuffs generally consumed by wage earners and their families. The data are not strictly comparable from city to city owing to possible differences in the quality or grade of the article quoted.

These statistics are primarily collected for the purpose of calculating the index numbers of real wages which appear in the *Review*.[1] They are, however, also of interest in showing changes in the level of wages and of food prices from time to time.

As stated in the February number of the *Review* (page 265), the International Labour Office is taking steps to increase the number of towns in each country for which statistics of wages and retail prices are obtained, and the number of occupations and commodities covered. Certain changes in the system of calculation of the real wage index numbers based on these statistics are also under consideration. Instead of publishing the statistics every quarter, it is now thought preferable — as suggested by the recent International Conference on Wage Statistics[2] — to compile the figures twice a year only. This will give an opportunity to Government departments to supply more detailed information than has been hitherto possible. It is hoped that the more complete statistics of wages and prices will be obtained for July 1929, and published in the *Review* for October 1929.

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[1] See below, pp. 571-574.

[2] See above, pp. 522-539.

TABLE I. MONEY WAGES CALCULATED ON THE BASIS OF 48 HOURS' WORK AT ORDINARY TIME RATES IN JANUARY 1929

Industry and occupation	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels	Dublin	Lisbon	Lodz	London	Madrid	Milan	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[2]	Prague[3]	Rome	Stockholm[4]	Vienna	Warsaw
Building Industry:	Gulden	R. Mks.	Francs	s. d.	Escudos	Zloty	s. d.	Pesetas	Lire	Dollars	Francs	Dollars	Koruny	Lire	Kronor	Schillinge	Zloty
Bricklayers or masons	38.40	70.56	276.00	90 0	120.00	76.80	83 0	60.00	165.60	57.60	252.00	78.00	280.00	156.80	76.80	71.04	86.40
Carpenters	38.40	71.04	276.00	88 0	120.00	76.80	83 0	78.00	172.80	40.80	252.00	60.00	240.00	156.80	76.80	75.84	69.60
Joiners	38.40	—	276.00	88 0	—	76.80	83 0	84.00	160.80	40.80	252.00	60.00	—	146.40	76.80	60.48	—
Plumbers	38.40	76.32	264.00	89 0	114.00	76.80	83 0	64.50	—	45.60	252.00	55.20	—	144.00	66.24	57.52	—
Painters (general)	36.00	68.64	252.00	86 0	108.00	72.00	79 0	62.40	175.20	31.20	252.00	50.40	280.00	180.00	81.60	81.60	72.00
Labourers (general)	36.00	58.08	204.00	64 0	—	40.80	63 0	45.00	108.00	21.60	200.00	28.80	200.00	100.80	69.60	55.20	44.16
Engineering Trades:																	
Fitters	30.72	48.24	238.56	75 1	—	45.60	64 3	72.00	144.30	28.80	225.60	48.00	287.50	136.80	—	65.00	50.40
Ironmoulders (sand)	30.72	48.24	239.04	75 1	120.00	45.60	64 3	72.00	155.40	28.32	278.40	46.50	340.00	146.40	—	63.00	50.40
Patternmakers	30.72	48.24	247.20	77 1	120.00	45.60	68 10	90.00	—	33.60	278.40	48.00	340.00	—	—	59.00	50.40
Turners	30.72	48.24	245.28	75 1	120.00	45.60	64 3	78.00	156.90	28.80	235.20	38.40	287.50	136.80	—	60.00	50.40
Labourers	25.52	38.40	173.76	55 2	—	30.24	46 3	42.00	114.00	19.20	153.60	31.20	177.50	93.60	—	43.00	33.12
Furniture Trades:																	
Cabinet-makers	33.40	59.80	312.00	88 0	—	—	84 0	72.00	187.50	25.20	—	—	297.50	182.40	57.60	57.12	—
Labourers	—	50.60	—	60 0	—	—	—	42.00	132.60	16.80	—	—	150.00	93.60	51.84	37.92	—
Printing and Bookbinding Trades:																	
Hand compositors (book and job)	35.04	56.00	269.25	84 0	120.00	91.30	89 0	73.50	213.36	37.50	295.20	43.20	—	165.00	60.55	65.50	120.00
Machine compositors (book and job)	39.66	67.20	308.25	84 0	120.00	91.30	96 0	81.00	232.32	37.50	337.80	45.17	285.00	193.60	66.40	78.60	168.00
Machine minders	35.04	56.00	296.25	84 0	—	91.30	89 0	88.50	210.50	35.20	295.20	43.82	—	165.00	60.55	65.50	120.00
Bookbinders	35.04	52.32	295.25	84 0	114.00	79.30	80 0	70.50	213.36	37.00	295.20	42.00	212.50	155.00	55.20	54.00	—
Labourers	28.08	49.00	—	55 6	—	31.30	71 0[1]	48.00	143.00	—	261.20	—	180.00	118.80	49.60	43.50	57.12

[1] Warehouse porters. [2] Figures for May 1928. [3] According to information communicated by the Ministry of Social Welfare, a bricklayer's wage in October 1927 was 240 koruny instead of 280, which was the figure given in the *International Labour Review* for January 1928. It has also been ascertained that in July and October 1928, bricklayers' and building labourers' wages were 280 and 200 koruny respectively, instead of 250 and 165, which were the figures given in the *International Labour Review* for October 1928 and January 1929.

[4] For certain occupations the figures are minimum rates fixed by collective agreements, and skilled workers are frequently paid at higher rates.

TABLE II. AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES PER KILOGRAM[1] OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOOD IN JANUARY 1929

Commodity	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels	Dublin	Lisbon	Lodz	London	Madrid	Milan	Oslo	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[2]	Prague	Rome	Stockholm	Vienna	Warsaw
	Gulden	R. Mks.	Francs	Pence	Escudos	Zloty	Pence	Pesetas	Lire	Kroner	Cents	Francs	Cents	Koruny	Lire	Kronor	Schillinge	Zloty
Bread																		
White	0.22	0.72	2.20	5.3	2.00	—	4.6	0.65	1.85	0.78	17.0	2.00	18.5	3.10	2.00	0.73	1.65	—
Black or rye	0.18	0.41	2.15	—	—	0.55	—	—	—	0.40	—	—	—	2.78		0.69	0.65	0.51
Flour (wheaten)	0.22	0.54	2.88	4.9	3.60	0.88	5.3	0.80	2.48	0.37	11.7	2.90	10.4	3.77	2.35	0.39	0.64	0.80
Butter																		
Fresh	2.75	4.50	36.39	50.7	26.00	9.68	49.8	5.00	17.75	3.79	95.3	30.75	138.5	26.76	18.00	—	6.40	8.98
Salt	—	4.00	—	44.1	24.00	—	49.6	3.20	—	—	—	—	—	—	9.50	4.00	—	—
Margarine	1.20	1.86	12.25	17.6	10.00	—	15.4	5.00	—	1.18	—	10.80	63.9	15.13	11.00	1.40	2.80	—
Beef (home produce)																		
Ribs	1.40	2.20	26.86	39.7	9.60	3.25	39.3	4.20	12.30	2.30	59.5	20.95	92.0	15.35	7.00	2.01	3.20	2.66
Thin flank	0.90		13.14	22.1			16.3	3.30	5.85	1.85	30.7	10.15	76.1	13.09	6.25	1.53		
Beef (chilled or frozen)																		
Ribs	1.20	—	17.33	—	—	—	24.0	4.00	9.00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2.50	—
Thin flank	0.80	1.40	7.67	—	—	—	9.9	3.00	2.50	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Mutton (home produce)																		
Leg	2.20	2.80	19.25	37.5	8.00	2.82	38.6	4.00	—	2.09	63.5	24.10	92.0	12.92	—	2.34	3.00	2.94
Breast	1.20	2.40	9.75	27.1	—	—	18.5	2.80	—	1.84	—	9.40	—		—	—		
Mutton (frozen)																		
Leg	—	—	13.50	—	—	—	25.6	—	—	1.67	—	13.00	—	—	—	—	—	—
Breast	—	—	7.00	—	—	—	10.4	—	—		—	4.50	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bacon	1.20	2.80	18.01	27.1	9.00	8.37	32.4	3.20	9.80	—	80.3	13.65	92.6	—	11.00	2.42	3.60	3.40
Potatoes	0.07	0.10	0.92	1.9	0.90	0.19	2.4	0.35	1.00	0.12	3.7	1.35	5.1	0.89	1.00	0.15	0.24	0.15
Sugar (white granulated)	0.46	0.58	3.43	6.6	3.60	1.54	6.4	1.60	6.50	0.67	15.4	4.25	13.5	6.30	6.75	0.48	0.92	1.50
Coffee	1.49	6.60	25.61	61.7	10.00	10.69	—	9.00	31.00	3.76	139.8	25.00	96.8	48.45	29.40	4.00	10.00	8.20
Coffee substitute	—	0.55	—	—	—	2.69	—	3.50	14.80	—	—	—	—	4.04	11.70	1.60	1.70	2.80
Tea	8.00	9.60	36.67	44.1	30.00	28.00	52.9	18.00	—	—	159.9	43.00	152.1	—	63.00	—	20.00	20.00
Cheese	1.60	1.50	—	35.3	16.00	2.45	30.0	5.00	20.05	0.65	76.7	20.65	92.8	6.35	13.50	1.79	5.70	2.21
Milk (unskimmed)	0.18	0.29	2.33	6.2	2.00	0.58	6.2	0.80	1.40	0.28	11.5	1.75	11.5	2.36	1.50	0.26	0.52	0.50
Eggs (not new laid or preserved)	0.13	0.16	1.32	2.5	0.75	0.26	2.8	0.20	0.86	0.10	6.2	1.23	5.4	1.19	0.71	0.18	0.24	0.32
Rice	0.25	0.70	5.48	6.6	3.40	1.25	6.2	0.80	1.80	0.76	25.1	4.40	22.9	4.41	1.93	0.52	1.00	0.93

[1] Except for milk (per litre) and eggs (per unit).

[2] Prices for December 1928.

Comparison of Real Wages in Various Cities

STATISTICS FOR JANUARY 1929

Table I below gives index numbers of real wages in some of the principal cities of the world for the month of January 1929 (as a rule, the beginning of the month), in continuation of a corresponding table published in this *Review* for January, which gave figures for October 1928. These index numbers are calculated from returns of wages and of retail prices received by the International Labour Office from the competent authorities in the different countries, and published periodically in the *Review*.

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF COMPARATIVE REAL WAGES IN VARIOUS CITIES IN JANUARY 1929[1]

(Base : London, January 1929 = 100)

City	Index numbers based primarily on quantities of food consumption in :						General average index numbers	
	Belgium and France	Central Europe	Great Britain	Southern Europe	Scandinavian countries	Oversea countries	Based on food only	With allowance for rent
Amsterdam	83	83	78	84	90	84	84	84
Berlin	65	78	68	69	84	75	73	68
Brussels	49	49	49	50	52	49	50	54
Dublin	96	103	103	99	102	102	101	110
Lisbon	33	32	30	32	30	33	32	—
Lodz	40	48	38	42	49	50	45	46
London	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Madrid	53	54	50	56	55	55	54	—
Milan	45	49	43	48	50	49	47	46
Ottawa	143	158	158	147	165	163	156	154
Paris	55	59	53	57	62	55	57	—
Philadelphia	179	197	193	186	227	201	197	197
Prague	48	51	47	51	52	52	50	53
Rome[2]	41	40	38	45	43	44	42	38
Stockholm[3]	79	80	88	87	102	96	89	87
Sydney	140	142	157	150	140	159	148	—
Vienna	37	48	41	41	55	47	45	51
Warsaw[4]	42	50	41	45	51	47	46	47

[1] These index numbers are subject to the important reservations indicated on page 573.

[2] The low figures for certain Southern European countries may be accounted for in part by the differences in the items of food consumption in these countries from those ordinarily consumed in most of the other countries included in the table.

[3] The figures are based on wages in the building, furniture-making, and printing industries only. For other cities, the metal industry is also included.

[4] These index numbers are based on a weighted average wage, whilst for other cities an unweighted average has been used. This method has been adopted since 1925 as a result of information furnished by the Polish Government. The particulars given show that in Warsaw the number of metal workers is very high compared with other branches of industry, and that wages in this branch are particularly low compared with those of other classes of workers. The unweighted general index number based on food consumption only would be 58, and with allowance for rent 59.

If comparisons are made between the index numbers given in table I above and corresponding numbers previously published, it should be noted that differences between the index numbers for any city at different dates may be due either to changes in the level of real wages in that city between those dates or to changes in the level of real wages in London. The index numbers thus show only proportionate changes in the levels of real wages in relation to those in London. In order to avoid the difficulty in comparison due to changes in the level of real wages in London, table II is given showing index numbers of comparative real wages in various cities on the basis of real wages in London in July 1924 (= 100).

TABLE II. INDEX NUMBERS OF COMPARATIVE REAL WAGES IN VARIOUS CITIES BASED ON COST OF FOOD ONLY[1]

(Base : London, July 1924 = 100)

City	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928		1929
	July	July	July	July	Jan.	July	Jan.
Amsterdam	89	83	92	92	84	88	88
Berlin	55	63	70	71	68	77	77
Brussels	59	54	48	50	47	57	52
Copenhagen	—	93	114	112	112	—	—
Dublin	—	—	100	108	104	111	106
Lisbon	32	31	35	33	31	31	33
Lodz	—	54	44	44	48	49	47
London	100	99	102	106	103	110	105
Madrid	57	53	57	57	57	60	57
Milan	46	46	48	55	—	51	50
Ottawa	172	162	152	166	166	175	163
Paris	73	—	—	56	61	61	59
Philadelphia	213	180	169	189	194	197	206
Prague	56	48	51	49	—	49	53
Riga	—	42	48	51	—	—	—
Rome	46	45	44	46	47	48	44
Stockholm	85	78	89	98	92	92	93
Sydney	—	138	133	—	—	156	—
Tallinn	—	36	42	48	41	44	—
Vienna	47	42	44	43	48	47	47
Warsaw[2]	—	43	46	39	45	46	48

[1] Owing to a slight change in the composition of the baskets of provisions used for Prague, Stockholm, Vienna, and Lisbon, the indexes from 1925 onwards are not strictly comparable with those for July 1924.

The notes to table I apply also to table II.

[2] These index numbers are based on a weighted average wage, whilst for other cities an unweighted average has been used (cf. note (4) to table I) The unweighted index number for January 1929 would be 61.

The method of calculating these index numbers was fully described in the *Review* for October 1924 and may be summarised here. The average level of the weekly wage rates in each of the capital cities is computed. For this purpose an unweighted average of the rates

supplied is taken. The cost of a " basket of provisions " in each of the same capital cities is then computed from the returns of retail prices. It is not possible, owing to the widely varying importance of the different articles, to take an unweighted average of the retail prices ; the prices are therefore weighted according to the importance of the different commodities as determined by family budget enquiries. For this purpose six different series of weights are used, based primarily on family budget enquiries in Great Britain, Belgium, Germany, Sweden, Italy, and the United States of America. The number of times the average wage will purchase each of the six baskets of provisions is computed for each city, and the resulting figures are then converted to index numbers on the basis of London = 100. Thus an identical series of calculations is made for each city, using the same wage and price data, but on the assumption that the foods are consumed in the proportions shown by the six different family budget enquiries. An arithmetical average of these six index numbers is then taken, which gives the general average index numbers of real wages based on the purchasing power of the wages over the current items of food consumption.

It must be emphasised that the comparative levels of real wages as shown by these index numbers are subject to the important reservations made in the *Review* for October 1924. In the first place the calculations are based on the wages of a few categories of workers only, and secondly, they are based on the assumption that the whole of the worker's wage is spent on the foodstuffs for which prices are obtained. From the ideal point of view a group of commodities should be formed including items not only of food but also of heating and lighting, clothing, house accommodation, and various miscellaneous items of consumption, so that the purchasing power of the wages might be measured by budgets comprising all the main items of current consumption weighted according to their relative importance.

In practice, it is impossible to construct such an ideal unit of measurement owing to differences in the items consumed in the different countries, or, where similar items are found in the consumption budgets, to differences in their quantity and quality. A further difficulty is the lack of price data for many of the items. Consequently it has been found necessary to limit the calculation to a list of those articles of food which are common items in the consumption of working-class families in the countries covered. This limitation to the principal articles of food may diminish the value of the results, but it should be remembered that the expenditure on food constitutes the great part of family outgo, often reaching two-thirds of the expenditure. The effect of the exclusion of clothing, fuel and light, and rent from the calculations depends on the extent to which the relations existing between the level of the prices of these items and the level of food prices differs from country to country. In the case of fuel and light and clothing, the effect is probably small. In the case of rent, however, owing to the operation of rent restriction legislation, the levels of rent and the proportion spent on rent in different countries differ widely. Information has been obtained as to the percentage of the total expenditure which goes in rent, and this information has been used to correct approximately the index numbers based

on food alone. These corrected index numbers are given in the last column of table I.

In spite of the numerous reservations which it is necessary to make, it is thought that these figures may serve as a rough indication of the relative level of real wages of adult male workers in certain groups of occupations in the different cities.

Cost of Food in Different Cities

The following table, in continuation of figures given in previous numbers of the *Review*, shows the cost of the baskets of provisions in the different cities in terms of gold. For this purpose, the average cost of each of the six baskets of provisions used for the calculation of the real wage index numbers is converted into dollars at the average rate of exchange ruling in the month of December 1928. The cities are given in order of increasing cost.

The differences, though mainly the result of differences in prices of the foodstuffs in the various cities, are to some extent due to the fact that the prices quoted are not invariably for the same quality of article, and are also due to factors affecting the rate of exchange.

City	$	City	$
Brussels	1.29	Milan	1.70
Warsaw	1.29	Berlin	1.73
Prague	1.37	Dublin	1.73
Lodz	1.39	Stockholm	1.77
Lisbon	1.45	Vienna	1.77
Amsterdam	1.48	Madrid	1.88
Paris	1.60	Ottawa	1.92
Rome	1.67	Sydney	1.92
London	1.68	Philadelphia	2.15

Extension of the Comparisons

In future, as explained above on page 568, it is hoped to increase the number of towns and occupations in these comparisons, which will then be published twice a year only, beginning in the *Review* for October 1929 with the figures for July 1929.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Recent Labour Legislation

The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French, and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used.[1] Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1927

INTERNATIONAL

Estonia-Czechoslovakia

Kaubaleping Eesti Vabariigi ja Tshehoslovakkia Vabariigi vahel. 20. juunil 1927. a.

Traité de Commerce entre la République d'Esthonie et la République Tchécoslovaque. Du 20 juin 1927.

(Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 47, p. 526.)

Germany-Panama

Handels- und Schiffahrtsvertrag zwischen dem Deutschen Reich und Panama. Vom 21. November 1927.

Tratado de Comercio y Navegación entre Alemania y Panama. 21 de Noviembre de 1927.

(R.G.Bl. II, 1928, No. 50, p. 639.)

Netherlands-Guatemala

Handelsverdrag tusschen Nederland en Guatemala. 12 Mei 1927.

Tratado comercial entre los Países Bajos y Guatemala. 12 de mayo de 1927.

(Staatsblad, 1928, No. 505.)

[Treaty of Commerce between the Netherlands and Guatemala, signed in Guatemala on 12 May 1927.]

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[1] *List of abbreviations*: A. N. = Amtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für Soziale Verwaltung; B. G. Bl. = Bundesgesetzblatt; B. I. R. S. = Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales; B. M. T. = Bulletin du Ministère du Travail; B. O. M. T. = Boletín Oficial del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria; C. S. R. = Commonwealth Statutory Rules; D. R. A. = Deutscher Reichsanzeiger; Drj. Vest. = Drjaven Vestnik; E. K. N. = Ergatiké kai Koinoniké Nomothesia (parartéma B') (published by the Ministry of National Economy); Eph. Kyb. = Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Teuchos proton); G. U. = Gazzetta Ufficiale; I. N. K. T. = Izvestia Narodnogo Komissariata Trooda; J. O. = Journal Officiel; Lik. = Likumu un Ministru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums; R. Arb. Bl. = Reichsarbeitsblatt; R. d. T. = Revue du Travail; R. G. Bl. = Reichsgesetzblatt; S. R. & O. = Statutory Rules and Orders; Sb. z. a n. = Sbirka zâkonu a narizeni (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslovak Republic); L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office.

Norway-Greece

Convention de Commerce et de Navigation entre la Norvège et la Grèce. Du 29 juin 1927.

Handels- og Sjöfartskonvension mellem Norge og Grekenland. 29 juni 1927. (Overenskomster med fremmede stater, 1928, No. 7, p. 309.)

CEYLON

An Ordinance to make provision for the granting of Pensions to Teachers in Assisted Schools. No. 6 of 1927. Assented to 1 August 1927.

An Ordinance to amend and consolidate the Law relating to the Department of Medical and Sanitary Services, the Ceylon Medical College, the Ceylon Medical Council, Medical Practitioners, Dentists, Midwives, and Pharmacists. No. 26 of 1927. Assented to 23 December 1927.

FRENCH COLONIES

French Equatorial Africa

Arrêté instituant un livret de travail pour les indigènes. Du 3 janvier 1927. (J. O. de l'Afrique équatoriale française, 1927, No. 2, p. 42.)

GUATEMALA

Decreto Núm. 1506 (Ratificase el tratado comercial entre Guatemala y los Paises Bajos). 19 de Mayo de 1927. (El Guatemalteco, 1928, No. 2, p. 5.)

[Decree No. 1506 (to ratify the Treaty of Commerce between Guatemala and the Netherlands). Dated 19 May 1927.]

KENYA

Government Notice No. 572. Rules under the Native Registration Ordinance. Dated 21 October 1927. (Official Gazette of the Colony and Protectorate of Kenya, 1927, Vol. XXIX, No. 1174, p. 1473.)

PORTUGUESE COLONIES

Mozambique

Diploma Legislativo da Colónia no. 36. Define as condições especiais que devem caracterizar os indigenas ou não indigenas, para o efeito da aplicação do estatuto e diplomas especiais promulgados para os primeiros. 12 de Novembro de 1927. (Boletim da Companhia de Moçambique, 1928, No. 24, p. 382.)

[Legislative Decree No. 36, to define the special features characteristic of natives and of non-natives for the purpose of the administration of the Code and special legislation promulgated in respect of the former. Dated 12 November 1927.]

SWITZERLAND

Bundesbeschluss betreffend die Ratifikation des von der siebenten Internationalen Arbeitskonferenz beschlossenen Uebereinkommens über die Gleichbehandlung einheimischer und ausländischer Arbeitnehmer bei Entschädigung aus Anlass von Betriebsunfällen. Vom 9. Juni 1927. (Eidgenössische Gesetzsammlung, 1929, No. 3, p. 19.)

Arrêté fédéral portant ratification de la convention concernant l'égalité de traitement des travailleurs étrangers et nationaux en matière de réparation des accidents du travail, adoptée par la septième session de la conférence internationale du travail. Du 9 juin 1927. (Recueil des lois fédérales, 1929, No. 3, p. 19.)

Zurich

Verordnung über die Amts- und Dienstverhältnisse der Beamten, Angestellten und Arbeiter der Stadt Zürich. Vom 5. Oktober 1927. (Zürich, Amts- und Dienstverhältnisse..., p. 26.)

LEGISLATION OF 1928

MANDATED TERRITORIES

French Togoland

Arrêté du 23 juin 1928 déterminant les conditions d'application du décret du 14 décembre 1927 portant réglementation des établissements dangereux, insalubres et incommodes dans le Territoire du Togo. (J. O. du Territoire du Togo, 1928, No. 112, p. 393.)

Arrêté du 23 juin 1928 portant classement des établissements dangereux, insalubres ou incommodes en exécution du décret du 14 décembre 1927. (J. O. du territoire du Togo, 1928, No. 112, p. 396.)

Arrêté du 23 juin 1928 au sujet des établissements dangereux, insalubres et incommodes de 3me catégorie. (J. O. du territoire du Togo, 1928, No. 112, p. 409.)

Arrêté du 27 juin 1928 relatif aux conditions que doivent remplir les réservoirs souterrains dans lesquels sont emmagasinés des liquides inflammables pour pouvoir bénéficier des dispositions prévues aux Nos. 98 et 99 de la nomenclature annexe à l'arrêté du 23 juin 1928 portant classement des établissements dangereux, insalubres et incommodes. (J. O. du territoire du Togo, 1928, No. 112, p. 412.)

Arrêté du 7 juillet 1928 créant un service d'inspection des établissements classés, et modifiant les arrêtés No. 436 du 1er août 1927 déterminant les services et bureau du Commissariat de la République au Togo et fixant leurs attributions et No. 22 du 9 janvier 1928 fixant les tableaux des suppléments de fonctions et indemnités diverses. (J. O. du territoire du Togo, 1928, No. 113, p. 443.)

Arrêté du 29 novembre 1928 portant réglementation du livret de domestique indigène. (J. O. du territoire du Togo, 1928, No. 122, p. 801.)

Palestine

Regulations made under section 42 (1) of the Railways Ordinance 1927 [to amend the Regulations under the Ordinance published in the Official Gazette of 16 June 1928]. Dated 15 August 1928. (Official Gazette of the Government of Palestine, 1928, No. 218, p. 548.)

* Regulations made under sections 5 and 9 of the Regulation of Trades and Industries Ordinance 1927. Dated 24 August 1928. (Official Gazette of the Government of Palestine, 1928, No. 218, p. 542.)

Order under section 8 of the Regulation of Trades and Industries Ordinance 1927. Dated 15 November 1928. (Official Gazette of the Government of Palestine, 1928, No. 224, p. 747.)

Tanganyika

* An Ordinance to amend the law relating to masters and native servants. No. 24 of 1928. Assented to 7 July 1928. (Supplement No. 1 to the Tanganyika Territory Gazette, Vol. IX, No. 52, 16 November 1928, p. 123.)

INTERNATIONAL

Estonia-Turkey

Kaubandus- ja Laevanduskonventsioon Eesti ja Türgi vahel. 12. märtsil 1928. a.
Convention de Commerce et de Navigation entre l'Esthonie et la Turquie. Du 12 mars 1928.
(Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 53, p. 619.)

AUSTRALIA

New South Wales

Regulation made under the provisions of the Mines Rescue Act, 1925. Dated 20 January 1928. (Government Gazette of New South Wales, 1928, No. 8, p. 358.)

Notice in pursuance of the provisions of the Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1912, section 3, as amended by the Coal Mines Regulation (Amendment) Act, 1913 [permitted explosives]. Dated 23 March 1928. (Government Gazette of New South Wales, 1928, No. 40, p. 1376.)

South Australia

An Act to consolidate and amend the Law relating to the making of advances by the Government to persons of limited means in order to provide homes for themselves, and for other purposes. No. 1876 of 1928. Assented to 1 November 1928.

Victoria

* Regulations under the Factories and Shops Acts. Dated 12 November 1928. [32-35 : manufacture of white lead, etc.]

AUSTRIA

Bundesgesetz vom 20. Dezember 1928, betreffend die Aufwertung von Renten nach dem Arbeiter-Unfallversicherungsgesetz (Gesetz vom 28. Dezember 1887, R.G.Bl. Nr. 1 aus 1888). (B.G.Bl., 1928, 96. Stück, No. 350, p. 2119.)

* Bundesgesetz vom 20. Dezember 1928, womit einige Bestimmungen des Gesetzes über die Krankenversicherung der Arbeiter, in der Fassung des Bundesgesetzes vom 18. März 1925, B.G.Bl. 113, und des Krankenkassenorganisationsgesetzes, in der Fassung des Bundesgesetzes vom 16. März 1927, B.G.Bl. 99, abgeändert, beziehungsweise ergänzt werden (XXIII. Novelle zum Krankenversicherungsgesetz). (B.G.Bl., 1928, 98. Stück, No. 354, p. 2296.)

* Bundesgesetz vom 20. Dezember 1928, betreffend Abänderung der Bestimmungen über die Altersfürsorgerente und die Altersrente. (B.G.Bl., 1928, 98. Stück, No. 356, p. 2311.)

* Bundesgesetz vom 20. Dezember 1928, betreffend die Fortsetzung der ausserordentlichen Massnahmen der Arbeitslosenfürsorge und die Abänderung einiger Bestimmungen des Arbeitslosenversicherungsgesetzes (XXII. Novelle zum Arbeitslosenversicherungsgesetz). (B.G.Bl., 1928, 98. Stück, No. 357, p. 2312.)

* Bundesgesetz vom 20. Dezember 1928 über die Regelung des Dienstverhältnisses der Privatkraftwagenführer (Privat-Kraftwagenführergesetz). (B.G.Bl., 1928, 98. Stück, No. 359, p. 2315.)

BRAZIL

Decreto N. 18074, de 19 de Janeiro de 1928, dá novo regulamento ao Conselho Nacional do Trabalho. (Revista do Conselho Nacional do Trabalho, Outubro de 1928, No. 3, p. 58.)

[Decree No. 18074, to issue new regulations for the National Labour Council. Dated 19 January 1928.]

CHILE

Ley número 4464.— Reemplaza el inciso 2º del artículo 7º de la ley 3997, de 4 de Enero de 1924. 17 de Noviembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 15229, p. 5503.)

[Act No. 4464, to amend the second paragraph of section 7 of Act No. 3997 of 4 January 1924 (respecting railwaymen's pensions). Dated 17 November 1928.]

Decreto número 1581.— Hace extensivo al personal de la Empresa de los Ferrocarriles del Estado, jubilado antes del 20 de Septiembre de 1927, los beneficios del decreto número 2026 de 20 de Diciembre de 1927. 13 de Junio de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 15148, p. 3875.)

[Decree No. 1581, to extend to the employees of the State Railway Company who were superannuated before 20 September 1927 the provisions of Decree No. 2026 of 20 December 1927. Dated 13 June 1928.]

* Decreto número 1387.— Dispone que los empleados del personal técnico de la Superintendencia de Salitre y Minas, desempeñaran el papel de Inspectores del Trabajo y de la Vivienda. 30 de Julio de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 15145, p. 3818.)

[Decree No. 1387, to entrust the exercise of the functions of labour and housing inspectors to the technical employees of the Directorate of Nitrate Beds and Mines. Dated 30 July 1928.]

* Decreto número 1636. — Aprueba el Reglamento de convenio sobre enganche de trabajadores para las faenas agricolas de temporada. 3 de Septiembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 15174, p. 4425.)

[Decree No. 1636, to approve the regulations for the engagement of seasonal agricultural workers. Dated 3 September 1928.]

Decreto número 2047.— Aprueba el Reglamento de montepío de los Empleados Públicos, afectos al Régimen de la Caja Nacional de Empleados Públicos y Periodistas. 2 de Noviembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 15236, p. 5635.)

[Decree No. 2047, to approve the regulations for the Relief Fund for public employees covered by the National Provident Fund for Public Employees and Journalists. Dated 2 November 1928.]

Decreto número 2116.— Deroga el articulo 259 del Reglamento de la Ley de Empleados Particulares. 12 de Noviembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 15230, p. 5527.)

[Decree No. 2116, to amend section 259 of the Regulations (of 22 May 1926) under the Salaried Employees Act Dated 12 November 1928.]

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Zákon ze dne 9. listopadu 1928, kterym se zrusuji ulevy stanovené z duvodu valky pro nastoupeni a provozovani zivnosti. (Sb. z. a n., 1928, Castka 68, No. 193, p. 1174.)

[Act to revoke the special facilities granted on account of the war in respect of admission to trades and the exercise thereof. Dated 9 November 1928.]

Vládni narizeni ze dne 29. listopadu 1928 o prevodnich castkach a pocetnich pockladech ustredni socialni pojist ovny. (Sb. z. a n., 1928, Castka 69, No. 195, p. 1175.)

[Order respecting the transfer values and bases of calculation to be used by the Central Social Insurance Institution. Dated 29 November 1928.]

Vládni narizeni ze dne 28 prosince 1928, jimz se územi ceskoslovenského státu rozdeluje na 29 dozorcich okresu pro úradováni zivnostenskych (priemyselnych) inspektorátu. (Sb. z. a n., 1928, Cástka 73, No. 208, p. 1400.)

[Order to divide the territory of the State of Czechoslovakia into 29 inspection districts for the exercise of the functions of the industrial inspectorate. Dated 28 December 1928.]

Vládni narizeni ze dne 28. prosince 1928, kterym se vydávaji podrobné predpisy o sluzbe u rozhodcich soudú nemocenskych pojist' oven, soudu pojist' ovacích a vrchního pojist' ovacího soudu a upravuje se jejich jednacirád. (Sb. z. a n., 1928, Cástka 74, No. 213, p. 1417.)

[Order to issue regulations for service on the arbitration boards of sickness insurance institutions, insurance courts and the supreme insurance court, and for the procedure of these bodies. Dated 28 December 1928.]

Vládni narizeni ze dne 28. prosince 1928, kterym se upravuii náhrada hotovych vydáni a presencni platy prisedicich rozhodcich soudu nemocenskych pojist' oven, pojist' ovacich soudu a vrchniho pojist' ovaciho soudu. (Sb. z. a n., 1928, Cástka 74, No. 241, p. 1428.)

[Order respecting repayment of expenses and attendance allowances for assessors on the arbitration boards of the sickness insurance institutions, the insurance courts and the supreme insurance court. Dated 28 December 1928.]

Vládni narizeni ze dne 28. prosince 1928, kterym se prodluzuje opetne platnost predpisú §§ 13, 16, 17 a 18 vládniho narizeni ze dne 21. rijna 1922, c. 305 Sb. z. a n., o zaopatreni trvalych zamestnancu na velkém majetku pozemkovém. (Sb. z. a n., 1928, Castka 75, No. 219, p. 1436.)

[Order further to prolong the operation of sections 13, 16, 17, and 18 of the Order of 21 October 1922 (Sb. z. a n. No. 305), respecting provision for permanent employees on large estates. Dated 28 December 1928.]

Vládni narizeni ze dne 28. prosince 1928 o dalsimposkytováni drahotnich priplatkú k úrazovym dúchodum. (Sb. z. a n., 1928, Castka 75, No. 223, p. 1437.)

[Order respecting the continuance of the grant of cost-of-living bonuses on accident pensions. Dated 28 December 1928.]

DENMARK

* Lov af 9. November 1928 om Aendringer i Lov Nr. 151 af 1. Juli 1927 om Arbeidsanvisning og Arbejdslöshedsforsikring m.m. (L.T. Nr. 268). (Socialt Tidsskrift, 1928, No. 11, p. B65.)

[Act to amend Act No. 151 of 1 July 1927 (L.T. No. 268), respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance, etc. Dated 9 November 1928.]

DUTCH EAST INDIES

Besluit van den Gouverneur-General van Nederlandsch-Indië van 14 November 1928 no. 27 : Bekendmaking van het verdrag van Washington betreffende den leeftijd waarop kinderen mogen worden toegelaten tot het verrichten van arbeid in Nijverheidsondernemingen. (Staatsblad van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1928, No. 515.)

[Decree No. 27 of the Governor General to promulgate the Washington Convention fixing the minimum age for the admission of children to industrial employment. Dated 14 November 1928.]

ECUADOR

* Ley sobre contrato individual de trabajo. 6 de Octubre de 1928. (Registro Oficial, 1928, No. 763, p. 8211.)

[Act respecting individual contracts of employment. Dated 6 October 1928.]

* Ley de la duración maxima de la jornada de trabajo y de descanso semanal. 6 de Octubre de 1928. (Registro Oficial, 1928, No 763, p. 8214.)

[Act respecting the maximum daily hours of work and the weekly rest. Dated 6 October 1928.]

* Ley sobre el trabajo de mujeres y menores y de protección a la maternidad. 6 de Octubre de 1928. (Registro Oficial, 1928, No. 763, p. 8217.)

[Act respecting the employment of women and young persons, and respecting maternity. Dated 6 October 1928.]

* Ley de desahucio del trabajo. 6 de Octubre de 1928. (Registro Oficial, 1928, No. 763, p. 8220.)

[Act respecting dismissal from employment. Dated 6 October 1928.]

* Ley sobre responsabilidad por accidentes del trabajo. 6 de Octubre de 1928. (Registro Oficial, 1928, No. 763, p. 8221.)

[Act respecting liability for industrial accidents. Dated 6 October 1928.]

* Ley de procedimientos para las acciones provenientes del trabajo. 6 de Octubre de 1928. (Registro Oficial, 1928, No. 763, p. 8227.)

[Act respecting procedure in lawsuits arising out of employment. Dated 6 October 1928.]

Decreto : Reforma al numeral 30 del Art. 6 del Decreto Reformatorio de la ley de Jubilación, Montepio Civil, Ahorro y Cooperativa, de 11 de Setiembre ultimo. 3 de Octubre de 1928. (Registro Oficial, 1928, No. 763, p. 8244.)

[Decree to amend subsection 3 of section 6 of the Decree to amend the Act of 11 September 1928 respecting superannuation, the civil servants' pension fund, savings banks and co-operative societies. Dated 3 October 1928.]

Decreto : Establecese en el Ecuador la jubilación obligatoria para los empleados de Banco. 6 de Octubre de 1928. (Registro Oficial, 1928, No. 763, p. 8209.)

[Decree to establish in Ecuador a system of compulsory pension insurance for bank clerks. Dated 6 October 1928.]

ESTONIA

Laws

Riigikogu poolt 18. mail 1928. a. vastuvõetud. Eesti-Tshehoslovakkia vahelise kaubalepingu ja selle lõpp-protokolli kinnitamise seadus. Nr. 285. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 47, p. 525.)

[Act to ratify the Treaty of Commerce between Estonia and Czechoslovakia and the concluding protocol thereof. Dated 18 May 1928.]

Riigikogu poolt 24. mail 1928. a. vastuvõetud. Uheksanda rahvusvahelise töökonverentsi poolt vastuvõetud meremeeste kodumaale tagasisaatmise kohta käiva konventsiooni eelnõu kinnitamise seadus. Nr. 311. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 51, p. 592.)

[Act to ratify the Draft Convention concerning the repatriation of seamen adopted at the Ninth International Labour Conference. Dated 24 May 1928.]

Riigikogu poolt 24. mail 1928. a. vastuvõetud Eesti-Türgi vahelise kaubanduse- ja laevandusekonventsiooni ja selle allarkirjutamise protokolli kinnitamise seadus. Nr. 329. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 53, p. 619.)

[Act to ratify the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Estonia and Turkey and the protocol respecting its signature. Dated 24 May 1928.]

* Riigikogu poolt 25. mail 1928. a. vastuvõetud Seadus tinavalge tarvitamise kohta maalritöödes. Nr. 277. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 46, p. 521.)

[Act respecting the use of white lead in the painting industry. Dated 25 May 1928.]

Riigikogu poolt 11. detsembril 1928. a. vastuvoetud Monede laevajuhtide kutseoiguse seadus. Nr. 632. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 104, p. 1177.)

[Act respecting the right of certain ships' officers to engage in their calling. Dated 11 December 1928.]

Riigikogu poolt 11. detsembril 1928. a. vastuvõetud Kaubaja abilaevade masinajuhtkonna ja masinameeskonna soidu seaduse muutmise seadus. Nr. 635. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 104, p. 1180.)

[Act to amend the Act respecting the certificates of competency of engine-room officers and men in merchant and auxiliary vessels. Dated 11 December 1928.]

Riigikogu poolt 11. detsembril 1928. a. vastuvõetud Raudteolaste kodu seadus. Nr. 636. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 104, p. 1181.)

[Act respecting the Railwaymen's Home. Dated 11 December 1928.]

Riigikogu poolt 20. detsembril 1928. a. vastuvõetud Eesti-Itaalia vahelise ajutise kaubandusliku kokkuleppe kinnitamise seadus. (Riigi Teataja, 1929, No. 1, p. 3.)

[Act to ratify the Provisional Treaty of Commerce between Estonia and Italy. Dated 20 December 1928.]

Orders

Kinnitusnõukogu üldkoosolekul 23. aprillil 1928 a. vastu voetud ja töö-hoolekandeministri poolt 31. mail 1928 a. kinnitatud Määrus tööstusliku töö seadustiku III peatüki § 311 p. 2 lit. b põhjal antavate toetusrahade arvete õiendamise kohta kinnitusühingute ja haigekassade vahel. Nr. 288. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 47, p. 536.)

[Order respecting the settlement of accounts between the insurance organisations and sick funds in respect of the benefits granted under (*b*) of the second paragraph of section 311 of the Act respecting industrial employment. Dated 31 May 1928.]

Kinnitusnõukogu üldkoosolekul 23. aprillil 1928. a. vastu võetud ja töö-hoolekandeministri poolt 31. mail 1928 a. kinnitatud Määrus artellides töötavate isikute tööstusliku töö seadustiku III ja IV peatüki (kinnitusseaduste) alla arvamise kohta. Nr. 287. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 47, p. 535.)

[Order to apply chapters III and IV of the Act respecting industrial employment (Insurance Acts) to persons employed in artels. Dated 31 May 1928.]

Teedeministri määrused meremeestekodu seaduse juurde. 24. mail 1928 a. Nr. 305. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 50, p. 567.)
[Order of the Minister of Communications under the Seamen's Homes Act. Dated 24 May 1928.]

Teedeministri määrus meremeeste seaduse juurde. 12. juunil 1928 a. Nr. 331. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 53, p. 634.)
[Order of the Minister of Communications under the Seamen's Act. Dated 12 June 1928.]

Vabariigi Valitsuse poolt 8. augustil 1928 a. kinnitatud Määrus laeva juhtkonnale ja meeskonnale laevaõnnetuse puhul kaduma läinud isikliku varanduse eest tasumaksmise normide kohta. Nr. 430. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 68, p. 823.)
[Order respecting the rate of compensation for the personal effects of the officers and crews of vessels which are lost owing to accidents at sea. Dated 8 August 1928.]

Vabariigi Valitsuse poolt 22. augustil 1928 a. kinnitatud Määrus laevapere toidunormide kohta. Nr. 443. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 71, p. 842.)
[Order respecting the standard rations for ships' crews. Dated 22 August 1928.]

Vabariigi Valitsuse poolt 3. oktoobril 1928 a. vastu võetud Maareformi teostamise määruste muutmise määrus. Nr. 508. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 83, p. 981.)
[Order to amend the order respecting the administration of the Agrarian Reform Act. Dated 3 October 1928.]

* Vabrikute ja tehaste juures asuvate lastesõimede ja lasteaedade korraldamise määrus. 19. oktoobril 1928 a. Nr. 537. (Riigi Teataja, 1928, No. 89, p. 1006.)
[Order to issue rules for the crèches and day-nurseries established in connection with factories and workshops. Dated 19 October 1928.]

Kinnitusnõukogu üldkoosilekul 20. oktoobril 1928 a. vastu võetud ja tööhoolekandeministri poolt 15. novembril 1928 a. kinnitatud Otsus haigekassa aastaaruande kava ning selle aruande kokkuseadmise jihatuskirja kinnitamise kohta Nr. 629. (Riigi Teataja, 1928. No. 103, p. 1143.)
[Decree to approve the model for the annual accounts of sick funds and preliminaries to the compilation of the said accounts. Dated 15 November 1928.]

FRANCE

Laws

* Loi modifiant la section I du chapitre 1er du titre III du livre 1er du Code du travail et de la prévoyance (du salaire des ouvrières exécutant à domicile des travaux entrant dans l'industrie du vêtement). Du 14 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 296, p. 13014.)

Loi modifiant la législation relative aux pensions des ouvriers et ouvrières de la marine comptant des services en régie directe. Du 20 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 301, p. 13254.)

Loi étendant aux départements du Haut-Rhin, du Bas-Rhin et de la Moselle les dispositions de la loi du 27 décembre 1923 portant organisation du crédit aux sociétés coopératives et unions de sociétés coopératives d'artisans, ainsi qu'aux petits artisans. Du 22 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 303, p. 13342.)

Loi portant prorogation du régime des allocations supplémentaires attribuées aux titulaires de rentes de l'assurance sociale invalidité-vieillesse, survivants d'Alsace et de Lorraine. Du 27 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1929, No. 5, p. 250.)

Loi portant fixation du budget général de l'exercice 1929. Du 30 décembre 1928 (J. O., 1928, No. 309, p. 13654.)
[Articles 72 à 83 : dispositions concernant diverses catégories de pensions.]

Orders

Décret modifiant le décret du 7 juillet 1926 relatif à l'exercice des professions ambulantes et à la réglementation de la circulation des nomades. Du 7 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 305, p. 13431.)

Décret relatif à l'application de la loi du 21 mars 1928 portant réforme des régimes de retraites des ouvriers des établissements industriels de l'état. Du 15 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 298, p. 13124.)

Décret réglementant pour l'Indochine la saisie-arrêt sur les salaires et petits traitements des ouvriers et employés. Du 18 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 304, p. 13394.)

* Décret modifiant le décret du 22 septembre 1913 concernant les mesures particulières d'hygiène relatives aux étalages extérieurs des boutiques et magasins. Du 23 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1929, No. 2, p. 70.)

Décret portant promulgation de l'accord relatif aux travailleurs frontaliers et saisonniers signé à Paris le 4 juillet 1928 entre la France et la Belgique. Du 23 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1929, No. 4, p. 186.)

Arrêté du ministre de l'agriculture relatif à la création de comités départementaux d'aide et de protection des femmes immigrantes. Du 26 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1929, No. 23, p. 1046.)

Décret portant règlement de police sanitaire maritime aux colonies, pays de protectorat et territoires sous mandat rattachés au ministère des colonies. Du 27 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1929, No. 4, p. 206.)

Décret portant prorogation des dispositions des articles 4 et 5 du décret du 31 août 1927 relatives à la modification périodique des tarifs forfaitaires applicables au traitement, à l'entretien et au rapatriement des marins du commerce débarqués pour cause de maladie ou de blessure. Du 28 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1928, No. 309, p. 13756.)

Décret fixant le taux d'intérêt applicable au calcul des tarifs de la caisse nationale des retraites pour la vieillesse pour les diverses catégories de rentes assurées dans les conditions des lois des 20 juillet 1886 et 8 mars 1928. Du 31 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1929, No. 1, p. 23; Erratum : No. 3, p. 99.)

Arrêté fixant pour le premier semestre 1929, le tarif applicable au délaissement forfaitaire des marins du commerce débarqués dans un port de France pour cause de maladie ou de blessure. Du 31 décembre 1928. (J. O., 1929, No. 3, p. 97.)

GERMANY

Laws

* Drittes Gesetz über Aenderungen in der Unfallversicherung. Vom 20. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1928, No. 44, p. 405.)

Gesetz über den Handels- und Schiffahrtsvertrag zwischen dem Deutschen Reiche und Panama. Vom 24. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., II, 1928, No. 50, p. 639.)

* Gesetz über eine Sonderfürsorge bei berufsüblicher Arbeitslosigkeit. Vom 24. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1929, No. 1, p. 1.)

Orders

Verordnung, betreffend Abänderung der Gebührenordnung [vom 28. September 1927] für die Genehmigung zur Beschäftigung ausländischer Arbeiter. Vom 1. November 1928. (R.Arb.Bl., 1928, No. 32, p. I 264.)

Anordnung über die Errichtung eines Gesamtfachausschusses für die Karneval- und Festartikelindustrie. Vom 3. November, 1928. (R.Arb.Bl., 1928, No. 32, p. I 266.)

Verordnung zur Abänderung der Vorschriften zur Durchführung des Gesetzes über die Regelung der Kaliwirtschaft. Vom 5. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1928, No. 49, p. 637.)

Verordnung über berufsübliche Arbeitslosigkeit. Vom 18. Dezember 1928. (R.Arb.Bl., 1928, No. 36, p. I 282.)

Verordnung über den Bezirk des Fachausschusses für das Konfektionsgewerbe, Sitz Erfurt. Vom 21. Dezember 1928. (R.Arb.Bl., I, 1928, No. 45, p. 414.)

Verordnung über die Anlegung von Dampfkesseln. Vom 22. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1929, No. 1, p. 2.)

Verordnung über die Vergütung der Einzugsstellen der Reichsanstalt für Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung. Vom 27. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1929, No. 1, p. 5.)

Verordnung zur Aenderung des Musters für die Monatsabrechnung der Einzugsstellen der Reichsanstalt für Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung. Vom 27. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1929, No. 1, p. 6.)

Bekanntmachung über das Genfer Uebereinkommen, betreffend die Krankenversicherung der Arbeitnehmer in Gewerbe und Handel und der Hausgehilfen. Vom 27. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., II, 1929, No. 2, p. 13.)

Bekanntmachung über das Genfer Uebereinkommen, betreffend die Krankenversicherung der Arbeitnehmer in der Landwirtschaft. Vom 27. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., II, 1929, No. 2, p. 13.)

Bekanntmachung über das Genfer Uebereinkommen, betreffend die Gleichbehandlung einheimischer und ausländischer Arbeitnehmer bei Entschädigung aus Anlass von Betriebsunfällen. Vom 27. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., II, 1929, No. 2, p. 13.)

Bekanntmachung über das Genfer Uebereinkommen, betreffend die Entschadigung aus Anlass von Berufskrankheiten. Vom 27. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., II, 1929, No. 2, p. 14.)

Achte Verordnung über die Versicherung der in der Kauffahrteiflotte, auf Kabeldampfern und Schulschiffen sowie in der Hochseefischereiflotte beschäftigten, nach dem Vierten Buche der Reichsversicherungsordnung versicherungspflichtigen Personen. Vom 28. Dezember 1928. (R.G.Bl., I, 1929, No. 1, p. 5.)

GOLD COAST COLONY

An Ordinance to amend the Native Administration Ordinance, 1927. No. 18 of 1928. Assented to 9 November 1928. (Gold Coast Gazette, 1928, No. 94, p. 1784.)

An Ordinance further to amend the Widows' and Orphans' Pensions Ordinance. No. 24 of 1928. Assented to 9 November 1928. (Gold Coast Gazette, 1928, No. 96, p. 1824.)

HUNGARY

Laws

1928. évi XXVI. Törvénycikk az 1919. évben, Washingtonban tartott Nemzetközi Munkaügyi Egyetemes Ertekezlet àltal a fiatalkorúak éjjeli ipari munkàja targyában, tervezet alakjàban elfogadott nemzetközi egyezmény becikkelyezéséröl. 1928. évi június hó 18-án. (Országos Törvénytàr, 1928, évi június hó 26-án, p. 338.)

[Act No. XXVI of 1928, to ratify the Draft Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry, adopted at the International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919. Dated 18 June 1928.]

1928. évi XXVII. Törvénycikk az 1919. évben Washingtonban tartott Nemzetközi Munkaügyi Egyetemes Ertekezlet àltal a nökneka szülés elott és utan valo foglalkoztatasa targyában tervezet alakjában elfogadott nemzetközi egyezmény becikkelyezéséröl. 1928. évi június hó 18-án. (Országos Törvénytar, 1928. évi június hó 26-án, p. 341.)

[Act No. XXVII of 1928, to ratify the Draft Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth, adopted at the International Labour Conference held at Washington in 1919. Dated 18 June 1928.]

1928. évi XXVIII. Törvénycikk az 1919. évben, Washingtonban tartott Nemzetközi Munkaügyi Egyetemes Ertekezlet àltal a nök éjjeli munkaja targyában, tervezet alakjában elfogadott nemzetközi egyezmény becikkelyezéséröl. 1928. évi június hó 18-án. (Országos Törvénytar, 1928, évi junius hó 26-án, p. 344.)

[Act No. XXVIII of 1928, to ratify the Draft Convention concerning the employment of women during the night adopted at the International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919. Dated 18 June 1928.]

1928. évi XXIX. Törvénycikk az 1925. évben Genfben tartott Nemzetközi Munkaügyi Egyetemes Ertekezlet által az üzemi balesetek kàrtalanítása targyában tervezet alakjában elfogadott nemzetközi egyezmény becikkelyezéséröl. 1928. évi június hó 18-án. (Országos Törvénytar, 1928, évi junius hó 26-án, p. 347.)

[Act No. XXIX of 1928, to ratify the Draft Convention concerning workmen's compensation for accidents, adopted at the International Labour Conference held in Geneva in 1925. Dated 18 June 1928.]

1928. évi XXX. Törvénycikk az 1925. évben Genfben tartott Nemzetközi Munkaügyi Egyetemes Ertekezlet által a foglalkozasi betegségek kàrtalanítása targyában tervezet alakjában elfogadott nemzetközi egyezmény becikkelyezéséröl. 1928. évi június hó 18-án. (Országos Törvénytar, 1928, évi június hó 26-án, p. 353.)

[Act No. XXX of 1928 to ratify the Draft Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases, adopted at the International Labour Conference held in Geneva in 1925. Dated 18 June 1928.]

1928. évi XXXI. Törvénycikk az 1925. évben Genfben tartott Nemzetközi Munkaügyi Egyetemes Ertekezlet által az idegen és a sajàat honos munkavàllalóknak az üzemi balesetek kàrtalanítása szempontjàból egyenló elbànàsban részesítése targyában tervezet alakjàban elfogadott nemzetközi egyezmény becikkelyezéséröl. 1928. évi június hó 18-án. (Országos Törvénytar, 1928, évi június hó 26-án, p. 359.)

[Act No. XXXI of 1928, to ratify the Draft Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents, adopted at the International Labour Conference held in Geneva in 1925. Dated 18 June 1928.]

1928. évi XXXII. Törvénycikk az 1927, évben Genfben tartott Nemzetközi Munkaügyi Egyetemes Ertekezlet àltal az ipar és a kereskedelem körében foglalkoztatott munkavállalóknak és a hàztartàsi alkalmazottaknak betegségi biztosítàsa tàrgyàban tervezet alakjàban elfogadott nemzetközi egyezmény becikkelyezéséröl. 1928. évi június hó 18-án. (Országos Törvénytaar, 1928, évi június hó 26-án, p. 364.)

[Act No. XXXII of 1928, to ratify the Draft Convention concerning sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants, adopted at the International Labour Conference held in Geneva in 1927. Dated 18 June 1928.]

Orders

A m. kir. Miniszteriumnak 1928. évi 3.950/M.E. számu rendelete az 1928. évi május hó 28-án kelt magyar-albán hajózási megállapodás életbeléptetéséröl. 1928. évi augusztus hó 24-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 215. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 3950/1928 of the Council of Ministers, to bring into operation the Shipping Convention between Hungary and Albania concluded on 28 May 1928. Dated 24 August 1928.]

A m. kir. miniszteriumnak 1928. évi 3960/M.E. számu rendelete az 1928. évi junius hó 28-àn kelt magyar-görög hajózási megállapodàas életbeléptetéséröl 1928. évi augusztus 24-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 215. szám, p. 2.)

[Order No. 3960/1928 of the Council of Ministers, to bring into operation the Shipping Convention concluded between Hungary and Greece on 28 June 1928. Dated 24 August 1928.]

* A m. kir. népjóléti és munkaügyi miniszter 3.960/eln. 1928 N.M.M. számu rendelete az öregség, rokkantság, özvegység és árvaság esetére szóló kötelezö biztositás tárgyában rendelkezö 1928 : XL. törvénycikk egyes rendelkezéseinek életbeléptetéséröl. 1928. évi szeptember hó 1.-jén. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 202. szám, p. 1.)

[Order of the Minister of National Welfare and Labour No. 3960/eln, 1928, respecting the bringing into operation of certain provisions of Act No. XL of 1928 respecting compulsory old-age, invalidity, widows', and orphans' insurance. Dated 1 September 1928.]

A m. kir. kereskedelemügyi miniszternek 1928. évi 106.290/XI. számu rendelete a Budapest székesföváros, területen kizáróan detail àrusitàsza berendezett takarmànykereskedések zárórájának ujabb megállapitása tárgyában. 1928. évi szeptember hó 15-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 217. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 106290/XI (1928) of the Minister of Commerce, to alter the closing hours of businesses engaged exclusively in the retail sale of forage in the capi al city of Budapest. Dated 15 September 1928.]

A m. kir. népjóléti és munkaügyi miniszter 4.223/eln. 1928. N.M.M. számu rendelete a betegségi és a baleseti kötelezö biztositásról szólö 1927 : XXI. törvénycikk hatálybalépését megelözö idöben történt balesetekkel összefüggö járadékoknak és járadékpótlékoknak az e törvény rendelkezéseinek megfelelö járadékokra való àtszàmitàsa tàrgyában. 1928. évi szeptember hó 25-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 221. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 4223/eln. 1928 of the Minister of National Welfare and Labour, respecting the conversion of the pensions and pension bonuses for accidents occurring before the coming into operation of Act No. XXI of 1927 respecting compulsory sickness and accident insurance, into pensions in accordance with the provisions of that Act. Dated 25 September 1928.]

A m. kir. népjóléti és munkaügyi miniszter 4.800/eln. 1928. N.M.M. számu rendelete az Országos Tàrsadalombiztositó Intézet és a Magánalkalmázottak Biztositó Intézete alkalma zottainak fegyelmi szabalyzatáról. 1928. évi október hó 8. napján. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 232. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 4800/eln. 1928 of the Minister of National Welfare and Labour, respecting the staff rules of the National Social Insurance Institution and of the Insurance Institution for Salaried Employees. Dated 8 October 1928.]

A m. kir. földmivelésügyi miniszter 1928. 38.900/VI-1. számu rendelete az Orszagos Gazdasagi Munkaspénztarnal az 1929. évre szolo balesetbiztositasok eszközlése targyaban. 1928. évi oktober hó 19-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 247. szám, p. 12.)

[Order No. 38900/VI-1 of the Minister of Agriculture, respecting the administration of accident insurance for the year 1929 through the State Agricultural Workers' Fund. Dated 19 October 1928.]

A m. kir. miniszteriumnak 4.720/1928. M.E. számu rendelete a lakasügyi korlatozasok fokozatos megszüntetéséröl szolo 8.888/1927. M.E. szamu rendelet modositasa targyaban. 1928. évi oktober ho 26. napjan. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 247. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 4720/1928 of the Council of Ministers, to amend its Order No. 8888/1927 respecting the gradual removal of the restrictions in connection with housing. Dated 26 October 1928.]

A m. kir. földmivelésügyi miniszter 1928. évi 33.333/VI-1 számu rendelete az Országos Gazdasági Munkáspénztárnal biztositották baleseti következményes betegsége esetén a segélyezési jogigény megállapitása tárgyában. 1928 évi oktober hó 26-án. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 250. szám, p. 4.)

[Order No. 33333/VI-1 of the Minister of Agriculture respecting the assessment of the claims to benefit of persons insured with the State Agricultural Workers' Fund in case of sickness consequent upon an accident. Dated 26 October 1928.]

A m. kir. népjóléti és munkaügyi miniszter 127.100/1928. N.M.M. számu rendelete a haztartasi alkalmazottak betegségi biztositasi bejelentéséröl. 1928. évi oktober hó 27-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 258. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 127100/1928 of the Minister of National Welfare and Labour, respecting the notification of domestic workers for sickness insurance. Dated 27 October 1928.]

A m. kir. népjóléti és munkaügyi miniszter 5229/eln. 1928 N.M.M. szamu rendelete az Orszagos Tarsadalombiztositó Intézet Központi orvosi tanacsanak és kerületi orvosi tanacsainak, valamint a Maganalkalmazottak Biztositó Intézete orvosi tanacsanak elnöki tisztsége targyaban. 1928. évi november hó 8-án (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 256. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 5229/eln. 1928 of the Minister of National Welfare and Labour, respecting the executive of the Central Medical Council and the District Medical Councils of the National Social Insurance Institution, and of the Medical Council of the Insurance Institution for Salaried Employees. Dated 8 November 1928.]

A m. kir. kereskedelemügyi miniszternek 1928, évi 44737/X./2. számu rendelete a pistamesterek és postamesteri alkalmazottak üzemi baleset esetében valo ellatasa tárgyában. 1928. évi november hó 19-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 269. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 44737/X/2/1928 of the Minister of Commerce, respecting provision for postmasters and their employees in case of industrial accidents. Dated 19 November 1928.]

A m. kir. miniszteriumnak 5180/1928. M.E. számu rendelete a mezögazdasagi munkasok munkaereje jogosulatlan kihasznalasanak meggatlasarol szolo 1923. évi XXV.t.-c.-2-14. §-ai hatalyanak az 1929. évre kiterjesztése targyaban. 1928. évi november hó 23. napjan. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 279. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 5180/1928 of the Council of Ministers, to extend to the year 1929 the operation of sections 2-14 of Act No. XXV of 1923 to prevent the exploitation of agricultural workers. Dated 23 November 1928.]

A m. kir. népjoléti és munkaügyi miniszter 5.900/1928, eln N.M.M. szamu rendelete a közös pénzintézeti nyugdijpénztar biztositéki alapja targyaban. 1928. évi december hó 6-án. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 279. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 5900/1928 of the Minister of National Welfare and Labour, respecting the guarantee fund of the joint Finance Institutions Pension Fund. Dated 6 December 1928.]

A m. kir. népjoléti és munkaügyi miniszter 6.002/1928. eln szamu rendelete az öregség, rokkantsag, özvegység és arvasag esetére szolo kötelezö biztositast szabalyozo 1928 : XL. törvénycikk XI. fejezetében foglalt rendelkezéseknek végrehajtasa tárgyában. 1928. évi december hó 10-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 282. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 6002/1928 of the Minister of National Welfare and Labour, respecting the administration of the provisions of chapter XI of Act No. XL of 1928 respecting compulsory old-age, invalidity, widows', and orphans' insurance. Dated 10 December 1928.]

A magyar kiralyi miniszteriumnak 5.500/1928. M-E. szamu rendelete a 8352. 1920. M.E. szamu rendelettel szabalyozott beköltözés ideiglenes megtiltasarol, szolo 6.135/1921. és 8.348/1921. M.E. számu rendeletek hatalyanak meghosszabbitasa tárgyában. 1928. évi december hó 14-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 289. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 5500/1928 of the Council of Ministers, to prolong the period of operation of its Orders No. 6135/1921 and No. 8348/1921 respecting the temporary prohibition of immigration laid down by Order No. 8352/1920. Dated 14 December 1928.]

A m. kir. népjóléti és munkaügyi miniszter 6.000/eln. 1928. N.M.M. számu rendelete a betegségi és a baleseti kötelezö biztositásról szóló 1927 : XXI. t.-c. XVI. fejezetében, valamint az öregség, rokkantság, özvegység és árvaság esetere szóló kötelezö biztositásról rendelkezö 1928 : XL. t.- c.X. fejezetében, megszabott bejelentesi és myilvántartási kötelezettség tárgyában. 1928. évi december hó 15-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928. 290. szám, p. 3.)

[Order No. 6000/eln. 1928 of the Minister of National Welfare and Labour, respecting the duty of giving notice and keeping records as specified in chapter XVI of Act No. XXI of 1927 respecting compulsory old-age, invalidity, widows', and orphans' insurance. Dated 15 December 1928.]

A m. kir. népjóléti és munkaügyj miniszter 6001/eln. 1928. N.M.M. számu rendelete az 1927 : XXI. t.-c. alapján betegségi és baleseti, valamint az 1928 : XL. t.-c. alapján öregségi, rokkantsági, özygységi és árvasági biztositásra kötelezett munkavállalók általános bejelentése tárgyában. 1928. évi december hó 15-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 290. szám, p. 20.)

[Order No. 6001/eln. 1928 of the Minister of National Welfare and Labour, respecting general notification of the employees liable to sickness and accident insurance under Act No. XXI of 1927 and to old-age, invalidity, widows', and orphans' insurance under Act No. XL of 1928. Dated 15 December 1928.]

A m. kir. népjoléti és munkaügyi miniszter 6.100/eln. 1928 N.M.M. számu rendelete a banyatörvény ala esö üzemekben és az ezekkel kapcsolatos ipari üzemekben foglalkozo munkasoknak és altiszteknek, valamint ezek csaladtagjainak, nyugbérbiztositasarol szólo 4.400/eln. 1926. N.M.M. számu rendelet modositasa és kiegészitése tárgyában. 1928. évi december hó 17-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 289. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 6100/eln. 1928 of the Minister of National Welfare and Labour, to amend and supplement his Order No. 4400/1926 respecting pension insurance for wage-earning employees and subordinate officials and members of their families in the establishments connected therewith. Dated 17 December 1928.]

A m. kir. népjóléti és munkügyi miniszter 6.200/eln. 1928. N.M.M. számu rendelete az öregségi, rokkantsági, özvegységi és, árvasági kötelezö biztositásban alkalmazandó napibérosztályoknak és átlagos napibéreknek, valamint az e biztositásért fizetendö járulékok kulcsának és mértékének megállapitása tárgyában. 1928. évi december hó 19-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 293. szám, p. 3.)

[Order No. 6200/eln. 1928 of the Minister of National Welfare and Labour, respecting the fixing of the daily wage classes and average daily wage rates and the key and scale of contributions due under the compulsory old-age, invalidity, widows', and orphans' insurance system. Dated 19 December 1928.]

A m. kir. népjóléti és munkaügyi miniszter 6.300/eln. 1928. N.M.M. számu rendelete a betegségi és a baleseti kötelezö biztositásról szóló 1927 : XXI. törvénycikk és az öregség, rokkantság, özvegység és árvaság esetére szóló kötelezö biztositásról rendelkezö 1928 : XL. törvénycikk altal alapszabaly utjan val ó rendezésre utalt egyes kérdéseknek ideiglenes szabályozása tárgyában. 1928. évi december hó 22-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928. 293. szám, p. 4.)

[Order No. 6300/eln. 1928 of the Minister of National Welfare and Labour, to deal provisionally with certain matters which under Act No. XXI of 1927 respecting compulsory sickness and accident insurance and Act No. XL of 1928 respecting compulsory old-age, invalidity, widows' and orphans' insurance are to be dealt with by means of regulations. Dated 22 December 1928.]

IRISH FREE STATE

* The Docks Regulations, 1928, dated 12 October 1928, made by the Minister for Industry and Commerce under section 79 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901 (1 Edw. VII, ch. 22), in respect of the processes of loading, unloading, moving and handling goods in, on, or at any dock, wharf or quay, and the processes of loading, unloading and coaling any ship in any dock, harbour or canal. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 69.)

ITALY

Laws

Legge 29 marzo 1928, n. 631. Modificazioni al R. decreto-legge 13 agosto 1926, n. 1490, relativo a provvedimenti in favore delle piccole industrie. (G. U., 1928, No. 87, p. 1558.)

[Act No. 631, to amend Legislative Decree No. 1490 of 13 August 1926, respecting the encouragement of small-scale industries. Dated 29 March 1928.]

Legge 17 maggio 1928, n. 1019. Riforma della rappresentanza politica. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1459.) (G. U., 1928, No. 118, p. 2150.)

[Act No. 1019 to reform the system of political representation. Dated 17 May 1928.]

Legge 13 novembre 1928, n. 2481. Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 29 dicembre 1927, n. 2660, concernente la proroga del termine stabilito dal decreto ministeriale 23 maggio 1927 per il riordinamento degli uffici e dei servizi e per l'epurazione del personale dipendente dall'Amministrazione provinciale di Roma. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2928.) (G. U., 1928, No. 271, p. 5694.)

[Act No. 2481, to ratify Legislative Decree No. 2660 of 29 December 1927, to extend the time limit fixed by the Ministerial Order of 23 May 1927 for the reorganisation of public offices and services and for the reduction of the staff employed by the administrative authority for the province of Rome. Dated 13 November 1928.]

Legge 13 novembre 1928, n. 2613. Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 18 marzo 1928, n. 831, concernente provvedimenti a favore dell'Ente edilizio per i mutilati ed invalidi di guerra. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3068.) (G. U., 1928, No. 283, p. 5894.)

[Act No. 2613, to ratify Legislative Decree No. 831 of 18 March 1928 issuing provisions respecting the Building Society for persons disabled in the war. Dated 13 November 1928.]

Legge 18 novembre 1928, n. 2839. Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 27 ottobre 1927, n. 1994, concernente proroga di termini per l'applicazione di alcune disposizioni del R. decreto-legge 5 dicembre 1926, n. 2051, con cui furono apportate modificazioni alla legge (testo unico) 31 gennaio 1904, n. 51. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3305.) (G. U., 1928, No. 302, p. 6294.)

[Act No. 2839, to ratify Legislative Decree No. 1994 of 27 October 1927, to extend the time limit for the bringing into operation of certain provisions of Legislative Decree No. 2051 of 5 December 1926, to amend the consolidated text of Act No. 51 of 31 January 1904 (respecting industrial accidents). Dated 18 November 1928.]

Legge 22 novembre 1928, n. 2777. Conversione in legge del R. decreto legge 23 ottobre 1927, n. 1982, che reca disposizioni per le cooperative edilizie. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3253.) (G. U., 1928, No. 296, p. 6185.)

[Act No. 2777, to ratify Legislative Decree No. 1982 of 23 October 1927 respecting co-operative housing societies. Dated 22 November 1928.]

Legge 29 novembre 1928, n. 2675. Conversione in Legge del R. decreto legge 9 aprile 1928, n. 696, portante modificazioni al R. decreto-legge 9 gennaio 1927, n. 5, concernente la istituzione dell'opera nazionale Balilla per l'assistenza e l'educazione fisica e morale della gioventù. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3135.) (G. U., 1928, No. 288, p. 5998.)

[Act No. 2675, to ratify Legislative Decree No. 696 of 9 April 1928, to amend Legislative Decree No. 5 of 9 January 1927 respecting the establishment of the National Balilla Organisation for the assistance and physical and moral training of young persons. Dated 29 November 1928.]

Legge 29 novembre 1928, n. 2786. Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 22 marzo 1928, n. 740, concernente interpretazione autentica dell'art. 10 del R. decreto-legge 13 novembre 1924, n. 1825, sul contratto di impiego privato. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3259.) (G. U., 1928, No. 297, p. 6195.)

[Act No. 2786, to ratify Legislative Decree No. 740 of 22 March 1928 respecting the true interpretation of section 10 of Legislative Decree No. 1825 of 13 November 1924 respecting the contract of employment of private salaried employees. Dated 29 November 1928.]

Legge 29 novembre 1928, n. 2941. Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 12 maggio 1927, n. 743, che istituisce il Dopolavoro per il personale delle privative. (Numero di pubblicazione : 88.) (G. U., 1929, No. 6, p. 107.)

[Act No. 2941, to ratify Legislative Decree No. 743 of 12 May 1927, to institute a spare-time organisation for the employees of monopoly undertakings. Dated 29 November 1928.]

Regio decreto-legge 31 agosto 1928, n. 2173. Esecuzione degli Atti di Belgrado fra il Regno d'Italia ed il Regno dei Serbi, Croati e Sloveni. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2642.) (Supplemento ordinario alla G. U., 1928, No. 234, p. 3.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2173, to ratify the agreements made at Belgrade between the Kingdom of Italy and the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes. Dated 31 August 1928.]

* Regio decreto-legge 31 agosto 1928, n. 2175. Esecuzione degli Accordi e Convenzioni fra il Regno d'Italia ed il Regno dei Serbi, Croati e Sloveni, firmati a Nettuno il 20 luglio 1925. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2644.) (Supplemento ordinario alla G. U., 1928, No. 234, p. 59.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2175, to ratify the Agreements and Conventions between the Kingdom of Italy and the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes signed at Nettuno on 20 July 1925. Dated 31 August 1928.]

Regio decreto-legge 8 novembre 1928, n. 2629. Modificazione al R. decreto-legge 27 ottobre 1927, numero 2055, sull' assicurazione obbligatoria contro la tubercolosi (Numero di pubblicazione : 3073.) (G. U., 1928, No. 283, p. 5903.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2629, to amend Legislative Decree No. 2055 of 27 October 1927 respecting compulsory insurance against tuberculosis. Dated 8 November 1928.]

Regio decreto-legge 15 novembre 1928, n. 2762. Costituzione di fondi per la istituzione e il funzionamento degli uffici per il collocamento gratuito dei prestatori d'opera disoccupati. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3232.) (G. U., 1928, No. 293, p. 6119.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2762, to establish a fund for the organisation and maintenance of free employment exchanges for unemployed workers. Dated 15 November 1928.]

Orders

Regio decreto 26 febbraio 1928, n. 619. Approvazione del nuovo testo unicol delle disposizioni legislative sull'Opera di previdenza dei personali civile e militare dello Stato e dei loro superstiti, amministrata dalla Direzione generale della Cassa depositi e prestiti e degli Instituti di previdenza. (Bollettino del R. Ministero degli Affari Esteri, 1928, No. 8, p. 622.)

[Royal Decree No. 619, to approve the new consolidated text of the legislative provisions respecting the Provident Institution for civil and military employees of the State and their dependants, managed by the General Directorate of the Deposit and Trust Fund and of the provident institutions. Dated 26 February 1928.]

Regio decreto 7 giugno 1928, n. 1369. Approvazione del regolamento per l'esecuzione del testo unico 26 febbraio 1928, n. 619, sull'Opera di previdenza dei personali civile e militare dello Stato e dei loro superstiti. (G. U., 1928, No. 177, p. 3541.)

[Royal Decree No. 1369, to approve the regulations for the administration of the consolidated Act No. 619 of 26 February 1928 respecting the Provident Institution for the civil and military employees of the State and their dependants. Dated 7 June 1928.]

Regio decreto 21 giugno 1928, n. 1727. Costituzione, presso il Ministero dell'economia nazionale, di una Commissione consultativa e di un Comitato permanente della pesca. (G. U., 1928, No. 179, p. 3617.)

[Royal Decree No. 1727, to institute an advisory board and a standing committee on fisheries in the Ministry of National Economy. Dated 21 June 1928.]

Regio decreto 10 agosto 1928, n. 2752. Approvazione del regolamento per la sicurezza delle navi mercantili e della vita umana in mare. (Numero di pubblicazione : 198.) (Supplemento ordinario alla G. U., 1929, No. 12, p. 3).

[Royal Decree No. 2752, to approve the regulations for safety on board merchant vessels and for safety of life at sea. Dated 10 August 1928.]

Regio decreto 6 settembre 1928, n. 2535. Prestazione oraria supplementare degli ufficiali postelegrafici in Tripolitania ed in Cirenaica. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3004.) (G. U., 1928, No. 277, p. 5803.)

[Royal Decree No. 2535, respecting the working of overtime by employees of the Department of Posts and Telegraphs in Tripolitania and Cyrenaica. Dated 6 September 1928.]

Decreto del Capo del Governo 30 ottobre 1928. Norme per l'applicazione de decreto-legge 18 marzo 1928, n. 831, e pel coordinamento dello stesso decreto con le disposizioni concernenti l'Ente edilizio per i mutilati ed invalidi di guerra. (G. U., 1928, No. 282, p. 5883.)

[Decree of the Prime Minister to issue rules for the administration of Legislative Decree No. 831 of 18 March 1928, and to co-ordinate the said Decree with the (other) provisions respecting the Building Society for persons disabled in the war. Dated 30 October 1928.]

Regio decreto 1° novembre 1928, n. 2483. Modifica dell'art. 21 dello statuto della Confederazione generale fascista dell' industria italiana, approvato con R. decreto 4 maggio 1928, n. 1049. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2948.) (G. U., 1928, No. 272, p. 5718.)

[Royal Decree No. 2483, to amend section 21 of the rules of the Fascist General Confederation of Italian Industry approved by Royal Decree No. 1049 of 4 May 1928. Dated 1 November 1928.]

Regio decreto 1° novembre 1928, n. 2652. Ulteriori disposizioni transitorie e di attuazione del R. decreto 26 febbraio 1928, n. 471, sulle controversie individuali del lavoro. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3119.) (G. U., 1928, No. 286, p. 5959.)

[Royal Decree No. 2652, to issue further transitional and administrative provisions under Royal Decree No. 471 of 26 February 1928, respecting individual disputes in connection with employment. Dated 1 November 1928.]

Decreto ministeriale 15 novembre 1928. Istituzione nel porto di Reggio Calabria di un Ufficio del lavoro portuale. (G. U., 1928, No. 273, p. 5744.)

[Ministerial Decree to institute a dock labour office at the port of Reggio Calabria. Dated 15 November 1928.]

Decreto ministeriale 22 novembre 1928. Istituzione di un Ufficio del lavoro presso la Capitaneria del porto di Taranto. (G. U., 1928, No. 281, p. 5863.)

[Ministerial Decree to establish a labour office under the harbour authority of the port of Taranto. Dated 22 November 1928.]

Regio decreto 28 Novembre 1928, n. 2874. Disposizioni per la disciplina e lo sviluppo delle migrazioni interne. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3316.) (G. U., 1928, No. 302, p. 6334.)

[Royal Decree No. 2874, respecting the regulation and encouragement of internal migration. Dated 28 November 1928.]

Regio decreto 29 novembre 1928, n. 3299. Varianti al R. decreto 25 maggio 1913, n. 668, concernente l'assicurazione degli operai contro gli infortuni sul lavoro nella Tripolitania e nella Cirenaica. (Numero di pubblicazione: 382.) (G. U., 1929, No. 23, p. 460.)

[Royal Decree No. 3299, to amend Royal Decree No. 668 of 25 May 1913, respecting workers' industrial accident insurance in Tripolitania and Cyrenaica. Dated 29 November 1928.]

Regio decreto 29 novembre 1928, n. 3255. Norme per la designazione e nomina dei membri delle organizzazioni sindacali dei datori di lavoro e dei lavoratori nella Sezione lavoro e previdenza sociale dei Consigli provinciali dell' economia. (Numero di pubblicazione : 419.) (G. U., 1929, No. 25, p. 495.)

[Royal Decree No. 3255, to issue rules for the nomination and appointment of members of the trade associations of employers and workers on the labour and social welfare sections of the provincial economic councils. Dated 29 November 1928.]

MEXICO (UNITED STATES OF)

Federal District

Reglamento del Tribunal para Menores del Distrito Federal. 15 de noviembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 22 de Noviembre de 1928, No. 17, p. 4.)

[Regulations for the Children's Court of the Federal District. Dated 15 November 1928.]

MOROCCO

* Arrêté viziriel du 7 juillet 1928 (19 moharrem 1347) déterminant les tolérances et exceptions prévues pour le repos, pour la durée du travail et pour le travail de nuit des femmes et des enfants, et portant abrogation de l'arrêté viziriel du 10 mai 1927 (8 kaada 1345). (Bulletin Officiel, 1928, No. 822, p. 1987.)

Arrêté du secrétaire général du Protectorat concernant les habitations salubres et à bon marché. Du 17 août 1928. (Bulletin Officiel, 1928, No. 827, p. 2318.)

Arrêté viziriel du 24 septembre 1928 (9 rebia II 1347) classant les ateliers d'usinage et de lavage des laines parmi les établissements insalubres, incommodes ou dangereux. (Bulletin Officiel, 1928, No. 833, p. 2623.)

Dahir du 10 novembre 1928 (26 joumada I 1347) portant modification à l'article 3 du dahir du 2 mai 1928 (12 kaada 1346) déterminant les conditions d'attribution des prêts à long terme à consentir aux mutilés et anciens combattants. (Bulletin Officiel, 1928, No. 841, p. 3070.)

Arrêté du secrétaire général du Protectorat modifiant l'arrêté du 25 janvier 1928 portant fixation du tarif des frais d'hospitalisation en matière d'accidents du travail. Du 14 novembre 1928. (Bulletin Officiel, 1928, No. 839, p. 2965.)

Arrêté viziriel du 7 décembre 1928 (23 joumada II 1347) fixant les tarifs des heures supplémentaires effectuées par le personnel des services extérieurs de l'Office des postes, des télégraphes, et des téléphones. (Bulletin Officiel, 1928, No. 842, p. 3145.)

Dahir du 19 décembre 1928 (6 rejeb 1347) portant modifications au dahir du 4 juillet 1928 (15 moharrem 1347) concernant les habitations salubres et à bon marché. (Bulletin Officiel, 1928, No. 844, p. 3281.)

NETHERLANDS

Besluit van den 20sten November 1928, bepalende de bekendmaking in het Staatsblad van het ontwerp-verdrag van Genève van 10 Juni 1925, betreffende schadeloosstelling voor beroepsziekten (Staatsblad 1927, no. 234). (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 423.)

[Decree to publish in the Staatsblad the Draft Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases adopted at Geneva on 10 June 1925 (Staatsblad 1927, No. 234). Dated 20 November 1928.]

Besluit van den 21sten November 1928, houdende vaststelling der voorschriften betreffende de inrichting van het ongevallenregister, bedoeld in artikel 80 *d*, eerste lid, der Ongevallenwet 1921. (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 425.)

[Decree to issue regulations concerning the drawing up of the accident register mentioned in section 80 *d* (1) of the Accidents Act, 1921. Dated 21 November 1928.]

Besluit van den 21sten November 1928, houdende vaststelling van regelen omtrent de betaling der uitkeering, als bedoeld in artikel 80 *h*, eerste lid, der Ongevallenwet 1921 en omtrent de inrichting van het register, bedoeld bij artikel 80 *k* der Ongevallenwet 1921. (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 426.)

[Decree to issue regulations for the payment of the allowance mentioned in section 80 *h* (1) of the Accidents Act, 1921, and the drawing up of the register (of payment of allowances) mentioned in section 80 *k* of the Accidents Act, 1921. Dated 21 November 1928.]

Besluit van den 21sten November 1928, ter uitvoering van artikel 80 *f* der Ongevallenwet 1921, bepalende de wijze, waarop de werkgever mededeeling moet doen van de erkenning van den aan zijne onderneming verbonden geneeskundingen dienst. (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 427.)

[Decree under section 80 *f* of the Accidents Act, 1921, to prescribe the manner in which the employer must make known the approval of the medical service connected with his undertaking. Dated 21 November 1928.]

Besluit van den 22sten November 1928, houdende vaststelling van de regelen voor het stellen van zekerheid, als bedoeld in artikel 80 *i*, tweede lid, der Ongevallenwet 1921. (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 429.)

[Decree to issue regulations for the giving of the security mentioned in section 80 *i* (2) of the Accidents Act, 1921. Dated 22 November 1928.]

Besluit van den 23sten November 1928, houdende vaststelling van de regelen betreffende den inhoud en den vorm van het uittreksel uit het ongevallenregister, bedoeld in artikel 80 *d*, derde lid, der Ongevallenwet 1921. (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 430.)

[Decree to issue regulations concerning the contents and form of the extract from the accident register mentioned in section 80 *d* (3) of the Accidents Act, 1921. Dated 23 November 1928.]

NYASALAND

An Ordinance to amend The Employment of Natives Ordinance, 1909. No. 7 of 1928. Assented to 14 April 1928.

An Ordinance to amend The Native Hut and Poll Tax Ordinance, 1926. No. 12 of 1928. Assented to 14 April 1928.

An Ordinance to regulate the position of natives residing on private estates. No. 15 of 1928. Assented to 31 August 1928.

An Ordinance to amend the Natives on Private Estates Ordinance, 1928. No. 16 of 1928. Assented to 20 November 1928. (Supplement to the Nyasaland Government Gazette, 30 November 1928, No. 16, p. 1.)

Notice No. 327 of 1928 under section 2 of the Census Ordinance, 1921 : The Native Labour Census Rules, 1928. Dated 20 December 1928. (Nyasaland Government Gazette, 1928, No. 16, p. 294.)

POLAND

Ustawa z dnia 28 listopada 1928 r. zmieniajaca ustawe z dnia 11 kwietnia 1924 r. o ochronie lokatorow (Dz. Ust. Rz. P. Nr. 39, poz. 406). (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 100, poz. 894, p. 2095.)

[Act to amend the Act of 11 April 1924 respecting the protection of tenants. Dated 28 November 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 28 wrzesnia 1928 r. w sprawie ustanowienia ekspozytur Urzedu Emigracyjnego. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 92, poz. 805, p. 2004.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting the establishment of branch offices of the Emigration Department. Dated 28 September 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 6 pazdziernika 1928 r. o postepowaniu lekarzy inspekcji pracy i o stosunku ich do innych organow inspekcji pracy. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 92, poz. 806, p. 2005.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting the duties of medical labour inspectors and their relations with the other labour inspection officials. Dated 6 October 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Rady Ministrow z dnia 26 pazdziernika 1928 r o zakresie czynnosci instruktorow korporacyj przemyslowych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 93, poz. 826, p. 2028.)

[Order of the Council of Ministers respecting the duties of the superintendents of industrial organisations. Dated 26 October 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Reform Rolnych z dnia 30 pazdziernika 1928 r. wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrami Rolnictwa, Skarbu i Sprawiedliwosci w sprawie zmian w rozporzadzeniu z dnia 7 grudnia 1926 r. do ustawy o wykonaniu reformy rolnej. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 101, poz. 903, p. 2101.)

[Order of the Minister of Agrarian Reform in agreement with the Ministers of Agriculture, Finance, and Justice, to amend the Order of 7 December 1926 under the Agrarian Reform Act. Dated 30 October 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 8 listopada 1928 r. wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrami : Przemyslu i Handlu, Skarbu, Komunikacji, Spraw Wojskowych, Robot Publicznych, Poczt i Telegrafów oraz Reform Rolnych o ksiazeczkach obrachunkowych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 96, poz. 846, p. 2044.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare in agreement with the Ministers of Commerce and Industry, Finance, Communications, War, Public Works, Posts and Telegraphs, and Agrarian Reform, respecting wages books. Dated 8 November 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 8 listopada 1928 r. wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrami : Przemyslu i Handlu, Skarbu, Spraw Wojskowych, Komunikacji, Poczt i Telegrafow, Robot Publicznych oraz Reform Rolnych w sprawie ksiag placy i wykazow wyplat robotniczych oraz ksiag niezbednych dla kontroli nad stosunkiem pracy. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 96, poz. 847, p. 2045.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare in agreement with the Ministers of Commerce and Industry, Finance, War, Communications, Posts and Telegraphs, Public Works and Agrarian Reform, respecting wages books and wages lists for wage-earning employees and the registers necessary for supervision of the conditions of employment. Dated 8 November 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 8 listopada 1928 r. w sprawie zezwolenia niektórym kategorjom zakladów pracy na nieprowadzenie czesci rozrachunkowej w ksia zeczkach obrachnunkowych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 96, poz. 848, p. 2047.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting the granting of permits to various classes of workplaces for omission of the keeping of the wages record in wages books. Dated 8 November 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Sprawiedliwosci, Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej oraz Ministra Przemyslu i Handlu z dnia 30 listopada 1928 r. w sprawie powoływania lawników i zastepcow lawnikow sadow pracy i sadow okregowych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 98, poz. 867, p. 2076.)

[Order of the Minister of Justice, the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, and the Minister of Commerce and Industry respecting the appointment of jurors and substitute jurors for the labour courts and district courts. Dated 30 November 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Sprawiedliwosci i Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 30 listopada 1928 r. w sprawie wyznaczania lawnikow sadow pracy oraz lawnikow sadow okregowych do udzialu w posiedzeniach sadu pracy wzglednie sadu okregowego. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 98, poz. 868, p. 2077.)

[Order of the Minister of Justice and the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting the appointment of jurors for labour courts and jurors for district courts to take part in the sessions thereof. Dated 30 November 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Sprawiedliwosci oraz Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej w porozumieniu z Ministrem Skarbu z dnia 30 listopada 1928 r. o dietach i kosztach przejazdu lawnikow i zastepcow lawnikow sadow pracy i sadow okregowych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 98, poz. 869, p. 2078.)

[Order of the Minister of Justice and the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, in agreement with the Minister of Finance, respecting the subsistence allowance and travelling expenses for jurors and substitute jurors of labour courts and district courts. Dated 30 November 1928.]

Silesia

Ustawa z dnia 11. pazdziernika 1928 roku w sprawie pokrycia wydatkow na zaopatrzenie bezrobotnych i ubogiej ludnosci w ziemniaki na zime 1928/29 roku. (Dziennik Ustaw Slaskich, 1928, No. 25, p. 119.)

[Act respecting the defrayal of the expenses of the supply of potatoes to the unemployed and the indigent part of the population during the winter of 1928-1929. Dated 11 October 1928.]

PORTUGAL

Decreto n. 15:884, que define quais as atribuïções que ficam competindo à policia internacional. 24 de Agosto de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 283, p. 2492.)

[Decree No. 15884, to define the powers and duties of the Aliens Department. Dated 24 August 1928.]

Decreto n. 15:917 — Aprova a Carta Orgânica da Colonia de Angola. 1 de Setembro de 1928. (Boletim Oficial da Colonia de Angola, 1928, I Serie, No. 39, p. 597.)

[Decree No. 15917, to approve the Constitutional Charter of the Colony of Angola. Dated 1 September 1928.]

Nova publicação, rectificada, do decreto n. 16:102, que altera o artigo 16° do decreto n. 10:782, que atribui à percentagem de 10 e 20 por cento as autoridades e agentes policiais que acusem transgressões pelo regulamento do horario do trabalho, revertendo essa percentagem a favor da assistencia publica local e o restante constituira receita do Estado. 31 de Outubro de 1928. (Diario de Govêrno, 1928, No. 263, p. 2337.)

[Decree No. 16102 (corrected text), to amend section 16 of Decree No. 10782, which grants 10 per cent. and 20 per cent. respectively (of the fines imposed) to the authorities and police officers who detect contraventions of the Regulations respecting hours of work, and to assign the said percentages to the local poor relief funds and the remainder to the State revenues. Dated 31 October 1928.]

Decreto n. 16:108 — Reorganizando o Conselho Superior das Colónias. 5 de Novembro de 1928. (Boletim Oficial de Cabo Verde, 1928, No. 49, p. 516; Idem, de Moçambique, 1928, I Serie, No. 49, p. 429; Idem, de S. Tomé e Principe, 1928, No. 51, p. 530.)

[Decree No. 16108, to reorganise the Superior Colonial Council. Dated 5 November 1928.]

* Decreto n. 16:177 — Ratifica a Convenção celebrada entre o Govêrno de República Portuguesa e o Govêrno da União Sul-Africana. 29 de Novembre do 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 277, p. 2403.)

[Decree No. 16177, to ratify the Convention between the Government of the Portuguese Republic and the Government of the Union of South Africa (signed on 11 September 1928, concerning the introduction of native labourers from Mozambique into the Transvaal, railway matters, and commercial intercourse between Mozambique and the Union). Dated 29 November 1928.]

* Decreto n. 16:199 — Aprova o Codigo do trabalho dos indigenas nas colonias portuguesas de Africa. 6 de Dezembro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 281, p. 2443.)

[Decree No. 16199, to approve the Native Labour Code for the Portuguese colonies in Africa. Dated 6 December 1928.]

Decreto n. 16:206 — Autoriza as emprêsas mineiras ou quaisquer outras que explorem indústrias em lugares afastados das sedes dos concelhos a que pertençam, cuja população mineira ou industrial não seja inferior a 500 pessoas, a criar e manter, exclusivamente à sua custa, una polícia privativa. 7 de Dezembro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 283, p. 2491.)

[Decree No. 16206, to authorise mining undertakings and any other industrial undertakings carried on in places remote from the chief towns of the districts to which they belong to establish and maintain a private police force entirely at their own expense in cases where the mining or industrial population is not less than 500 persons. Dated 7 December 1928.]

Decreto n. 16:242 — Aprova o regulamento da Caixa de Reformas e Pensões dos Caminhos de Ferro do Estado. 17 de Dezembro de 1928. (Diario do Govêrno, 1928, No. 290, p. 2535.)

[Decree No. 16242, to approve the Regulations for the State Railways Superannuation and Pension Fund. Dated 17 December 1928.]

RUMANIA

Lege pentru modificarea Art. 124 si 170 din Legea minelor. Nr. 3.253. 31 Decemvrie 1928. (Monitorul Oficial, 1929, No. 1, p. 37.)

[Act to amend sections 124 and 170 of the Mines Act. Dated 31 December 1928.]

SARAWAK

Notification No. 606. Order No. N-3 (Netherlands Indian Labourers' Protection): Amendment to section 20 (ii). Dated 9 November 1928. (Sarawak Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. XXI, No. DVII, p. 286.)

Notification No. 607. Order No. L-3 (Labour Protection): Amendment to Notification No. 368 of 16 December 1927: Discharging Labourers. Dated 9 November 1928. (Sarawak Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. XXI, No. DVII, p. 286.)

Notification No. 632. [Amendment of Order No. P-4. (Provident Fund).] Dated 19 November 1928. (Sarawak Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. XXI, No. DVIII, p. 294.)

SERB-CROAT-SLOVENE KINGDOM

Rules of the Central Maternity and Child Welfare Institution in Belgrade. Dated 4 November 1928. (Sluzbene Novine, 1928, No. 268-LXXXVIII, p. 1939.)

Regulations for the classification of workers and the wage system in tobacco factories. Dated 8 November 1928. (Sluzbene Novine, 1928, No. 268-LXXXVIII, p. 1941.)

Act respecting the loan of 22 million dollars raised at 6¼ per cent. by the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom and the concession of the right to sell matches. Dated 22 November 1928. (Sluzbene Novine, 1928, No. 273-LXXXIX, p. 1947.)

SPAIN

Real decreto aprobando el Estatuto, que se inserta, sobre formación técnica de Ingenieros Industriales y de Investigación. 14 de Diciembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 362, p. 1970.)

[Royal Decree to approve the Code of technical education in industrial management and research. Dated 14 December 1928.]

Real orden disponiendo que los Inspectores municipales de Sanidad giren cuantas visitas estimen convenientes a los establecimientos que comprenden las disposiciones que se indican, a los efectos que en las mismas se previenen, y que sea obligatoria en dichos establecimientos la práctica de las operaciones de desinfección, desinsectación o desratización una vez cada seis meses. 19 de Diciembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 355, p. 1832.)

[Royal Order to direct the municipal public health inspectors to visit the establishments mentioned in the provisions referred to (in the preamble to Orders dated 2 January 1926 and 7 November 1926, ratified by Order of 21 December 1927 as often as they consider it necessary to do so, for the purposes mentioned in the said provisions, and to make it compulsory for the said establishments to be disinfected and cleared of rats and vermin once every six months. Dated 19 December 1928.]

Real orden modificando los articulos 5º y 9º del Reglamento de 5 de Marzo de 1926, sobre elección de Vocales del Consejo de Trabajo, y abriendo un plazo de treinta días para solicitar inscripciones de Sociedades patronales y obreras en el Censo electoral social. 20 de Diciembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 364, p. 2054.)

[Royal Order to amend sections 5 and 9 of the Regulations of 5 March 1926 respecting the election of members of the Labour Council, and to fix a time limit of 30 days for the enrolment of associations of employers and workers in the electoral register of organisations. Dated 20 December 1928.]

Real decreto aprobando el Estatuto, que se inserta, de Formación Profesional. 21 de Diciembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 363, p. 1989.)

[Royal Decree to approve the Technical Education Code. Dated 21 December 1928.]

Real decreto relativo a la apertura de los establecimientos mercantiles del ramo de la alimentación en los dias que se indican. 22 de Diciembre de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 358, p. 1906.)

[Royal Decree respecting the opening of commercial establishments in the provision trade on certain days. Dated 22 December 1928.]

SPANISH COLONIES

Guinea

Decreto sobre condiciones para contrato y empleo de trabajadores chinos en las explotaciones agrícolas de la Isla. 25 de Septiembre 1928. (Boletín Oficial de los Territorios Españoles del Golfo de Guinea, 1928, No. XIX, p. 159.)

[Decree respecting the conditions for the engagement and employment of Chinese workers in agricultural undertakings on the Island (of Fernando Po). Dated 25 September 1928.]

Decreto sobre prestación personal. 5 de Octubre de 1928. (Boletín Oficial de los Territorios Españoles del Golfo de Guinea, 1928, No. XX, p. 167.)

[Decree respecting labour dues. Dated 5 October 1928.]

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

An Ordinance to amend Ordinance No. 125 (Merchant Shipping). No. 10 of 1928. Assented to 30 May 1928. (Straits Settlements Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. LXIII, No. 39, p. 907.)

An Ordinance to restrict, in certain circumstances, the immigration of labourers into the Colony and to provide for the removal from the Colony of prohibited immigrant labourers. No. 11 of 1928. Assented to 30 May 1928. (Straits Settlements Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. LXIII, No. 39, p. 910.)

Notification No. 1364 under section 113 of Ordinance No. 197 (Labour): Duties of the Indian Immigration Committee. Dated 2 July 1928. (Straits Settlements Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. LXIII, No. 47, p. 1164.)

UGANDA

The Factories and Machinery (Amendment) (No. 2) Rules, 1928, under the Factories Ordinance (Cap. 109, Revised Laws, 1923). No. 549 of 1928. Dated 29 September 1928. (Official Gazette, 1928, Vol. XXI, No. 19, p. 389.)

The Factories and Machinery (Amendment) (No. 3) Rules, 1928, under the Factories Ordinance (Cap. 109, Revised Laws, 1923). No. 551 of 1928. Dated 3 October 1928. (Official Gazette, 1928, Vol. XXI, No. 19, p. 390.)

URUGUAY

Decreto. Se reglamenta la ley que concede jubilación a los gremios de periodistas profesionales y gráficos. 28 de Noviembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 6736, p. 566-A.)

[Decree to issue regulations under section 7 (*c*) of the Act respecting pensions for employees of newspaper and printing undertakings. Dated 28 November 1928.]

Decreto. Se reglamenta la ley que concede jubilación a los gremios de periodistas profesionales y de gráficos. 28 de Noviembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 6741, p. 617-A.)

[Decree to issue regulations under the Act to grant pensions to employees of newspaper and printing undertakings. Dated 28 November 1928.]

Ministerio de Obras Públicas. Resolución. Se aprueba un Reglamento de Servicios de Sobrestantes. 18 de Diciembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 6754, p. 890-A.)

[Order of the Minister of Public Works to approve the staff rules for foremen. Dated 18 December 1928.]

Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

Permanent Court of International Justice. *Rights of Minorities in Upper Silesia (Minority Schools).* Acts and Documents relating to Judgments and Advisory Opinions given by the Court. No. 14-II. Thirteenth (Extraordinary) Session, 1928. Documents relating to Judgment No. 12 (26 April 1928). Leyden, A.W. Sijthoff. 414 pp.

XIIIme Congrès international d'Agriculture, Rome, 26 mai-1er juin 1927. *Actes.* Premier volume : *Comptes-rendus des travaux.* 260 pp. Deuxième volume : *Travaux de la Conférence internationale des Associations agricoles (Première Section du Congrès).* 206 pp. Troisième et quatrième volumes : *Rapports et Communications.* 916 et 615 pp. Rome, 1927.

The importance of the Thirteenth International Congress of Agriculture is recognised. The " Proceedings ", which have recently been issued, are a valuable record of the discussions and resolutions, and include complete texts of all the reports and communications forwarded to the Congress. Special mention may be made of Volume II, relating to the work done by the International Conference of Agricultural Associations (sitting as the First Section of the Congress) ; this volume reproduces the interesting national surveys of the agricultural economic situation in a number of countries prepared for the congress, the discussions thereon, and the discussions and important resolution on the relations of agriculture to the World Economic Conference of 1927 and to the League of Nations. Volume IV includes, in the section on " Organisation of Labour ", Professor Derlitzki's admirable summary of the labour problem in agriculture as investigated by the Labour Experimental Station at Pommritz, Germany, and the general survey contributed by Professor Brdlik, which contains much detailed information obtained by experiment and investigation at the Experimental Station attached to the University of Prague ; there is also an interesting general review of the scope of scientific management in agriculture by Mr. Augé-Laribé, with special reference to France.

The Sixth Section of the Congress, whose proceedings are included in the same volume, dealt with women's problems in agriculture. The discussions were principally devoted to problems of domestic science training, and organisation of farm women.

—— *Aperçu de l'agriculture italienne dans les vingt-cinq dernières années.* Rome, 1927. 206 pp.

Internationaler Bund der Privatangestellten. *Bericht über den Internationalen Kongress und über die Konferenzen der Fachgruppen der Techniker und Werkmeister sowie der Bankangestellten. Abgehalten in Dresden 14.-18. September 1928.* Amsterdam, 1928. 87 pp.

Internationales Buchdrucker-Sekretariat. Secrétariat International des Typographes. *Jahresbericht pro 1927. Rapport annuel pour 1927.* 105 pp.

International Transport Workers' Federation. *The Dangers of the one-man Locomotive and Motor Coach.* Memorandum submitted to the Delegates to the XIth Session of the International Labour Conference, Geneva. Amsterdam, 1928. 79 pp.

—— *The Prevention of Accidents and Diseases Connected with Motor Transport.* Memorandum submitted to the Delegates to the XIth Session of the International Labour Conference, Geneva. Amsterdam, 1928. 40 pp.

Sekretariat der Internationale des Personals der Post-, Telegraphen- und Telephonbetriebe. *Jahrbuch der I.P.T.T. 1929.* Vienna. 134 pp.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

AUSTRALIA

International Labour Organisation of the League of Nations. Eleventh Conference held at Geneva, 30 May-16 June 1928. Reports of the Australian Delegates. 24 pp.

AUSTRIA

Die Industrielle Bezirkskommission Wien. Landesbehörde für Arbeitsvermittlung und ihre Arbeitsämter 1918-1928. Vienna. 127 pp.

This well-printed report on the activities of the Vienna and district Industrial Commission for the period 1918-1928 is worthy of note for the abundant information it furnishes on placing and the position of the labour market in the Vienna district during the first ten years of the Austrian Republic. A large number of suggestive graphs add to the value of the report.

BRITISH GUIANA

Immigration Department. *Report of the Immigration Agent General for the Year 1927.* Georgetown, Demerara, 1928. 29 pp.

CANADA

Department of Labour. *First Annual Report on Co-operative Associations in Canada, 1928.* Ottawa, 1928. 78 pp. 15 cents.

The report contains a directory of co-operative associations in Canada and tables showing the number of societies, their membership, turnover, paid-up capital, reserve, etc. The societies are classified under provinces, and in each province by groups : fruit and vegetable growers, dairying, live stock, grain growers, and miscellaneous co-operative societies, among which are credit societies, distributive co-operative societies, fishermen's co-operative societies, etc.

FRANCE

Conseil national économique. *Problème de l'outillage national.* 4e série de rapports. Extrait du *Journal officiel de la République française* du 17 janvier 1929. Paris, 1929. 80 pp. 5 frs.

Ministère de l'Agriculture. Service de la main-d'œuvre et de l'immigration agricoles. *Conventions et règlements relatifs à l'immigration et à l'émigration.* Paris, 1928. 296 pp. 15 frs.

This collection of documents is compiled by the Agricultural Labour Supply and Immigration Service in collaboration with the Inter-departmental Committee for Immigration attached to the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs. It contains the texts of the principal reciprocity agreements signed by France since the war, relating to immigration (conventions bearing on immigration, labour, social insurance and welfare, assistance, and workers in frontier districts), and of various laws, decrees, arrangements, etc., concerning transit, emigration, inspection of immigrants and sanitary measures, and of regulations relating to foreigners in France. Only the texts necessary to enlighten the reader concerning the more important provisions of the latter are included.

It was not possible to draw up a complete code of French immigration laws under present conditions ; nevertheless, the work published by the Ministry of Agriculture is a most useful source of reference. Mr. Paon, the author of several valuable studies on immigration, and notably of a treatise on immigration in

France published in 1926, took a leading part in its preparation. In emphasising the utility of this work, it may be permitted to express a hope that in any future editions which may be published, the collection of texts, including the "supplementary texts" cited (protocols, model contracts, circulars, decrees, etc.), will be enlarged.

GERMANY

Reichsversicherungsamt. *Jahresberichte der gewerblichen Berufsgenossenschaften über Unfallverhütung für 1927.* 46. Sonderheft zum Reichsarbeitsblatt. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing. 632 pp.

GREAT BRITAIN

Board of Education. *The Plumber's Trade and Training. Report on Plumbing Instruction in England and Wales, July 1928.* Educational Pamphlets, No. 65 (Industry Series No. 2). London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 61 pp. 9d.

Medical Research Council. Industrial Fatigue Research Board. *The Comparative Effects of Variety and Uniformity in Work.* By S. WYATT, M.Sc., M.Ed., and J. A. FRASER, M.A., B.Ed. (assisted by F. G. L. STOCK). Report No. 52. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. III + 36 pp. 1s. 3d.

The results of this report, which supplement the information gained through a preliminary investigation carried out in 1924, tend to show that complete uniformity in manual repetitive work is generally less productive and leads to greater irregularity in the rate of working than a reasonable degree of variety, though this effect seems to depend partly on the nature of the process and partly on the individual operative. Further, while frequent changes are definitely detrimental to production, there is some evidence that the best conditions are attained when the form of activity is changed after 1½ to 2 hours of unvaried work.

Registry of Friendly Societies. *Report of the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies for the Year 1927.* Part 3. *Industrial and Provident Societies.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 173 pp. 11s.

Report by the Rt. Hon. W. G. A. Ormsby-Gore, M.P. (Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies) on his visit to Malaya, Ceylon and Java during the Year 1928. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 166 pp. 4s. 6d.

In this report incidental mention is made of labour conditions in Malaya and Ceylon. The health of labour on estates in Malaya is stated to be well cared for, but the death rate among Indian labourers (18.44 per thousand on estates and mines in the Federated Malay States in 1927) "would appear to be rather too high in view of the large proportion of adults in the prime of life comprising the estate population. The Government have power to take action in case of estates when the conditions of health are unsatisfactory, and the question is receiving careful consideration by those concerned."

A short summary of conditions of labour in Ceylon ends with the statement that "it is estimated that the 'real' wages earned by Indian labourers in Ceylon are approximately 100 per cent. higher than their earnings as rural labourers in Southern India".

INDIA

Department of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics. *Index Numbers of Indian Prices 1861-1926.* Calcutta, Government of India Central Publication Branch, 1928. 24 pp., tables. Rs. 2-12-0 or 5s.

Royal Commission on Agriculture in India. *Abridged Report.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1928. 101 pp. 1s. 6d.

BURMA

Annual Report on the Working of the Indian Factories Act, 1911, in Burma for the Year 1926. Rangoon, 1927. 54 pp. Rs. 3 or 4s. 6d.

ITALY

Ministero dei Lavori Pubblici.' Comitato permanente per le Migrazioni interne. *Le migrazioni interne in Italia.* Dati statistici. Rome, 1928. 238 pp.

The report published by the Permanent Committee on Internal Migration, attached to the Italian Ministry of Public Works, gives an estimate of migratory movements within the Kingdom during the second half of 1927 and the month of January 1928. An attempt to collect similar statistics was made by the Italian authorities in 1905, and again in 1910 and 1911. The Permanent Committee announces that the work interrupted after that date will now be resumed, and, in future, monthly abstracts will be published.

The principal elements utilised in the preparation of the report are the half-fare workers' transport vouchers delivered to passengers travelling on Italian railways in groups of not less than 5 persons, these workers benefiting by the special reduction of 50 per cent. on return tickets. The transport papers of these workers furnish data respecting their age, sex, occupation, district of origin and destination, nature of prospective employment or work about to be undertaken, duration of employment, etc. The returns compiled on the basis of these data give figures relating to internal migration, temporary or periodical, agricultural or industrial, but do not include movements of workers not travelling by rail or not utilising the collective tickets described above, or emigrants.

LATVIA

Valsts Statistiska Parvalde. Bureau de Statistique. *Latvijas Statistiska gada Gramata 1927. Annuaire statistique de la Lettonie pour l'année 1927.* Riga, 1928. XVIII + 531 pp.

NETHERLANDS

Departement van Arbeid, Handel en Nijverheid. *Verslag over het Haventoezicht uitgeoefend in 1927.* The Hague, 1928. VIII + 73 pp.

Report on the inspection of employment in ports in the Netherlands during 1927.

—— **Afdeeling Handel en Nijverheid. Sub-Commissie uit de Commissie voor de Economische Politiek.** *Onderzoek naar den Stand der Werkloosheid.* 1. The Hague, 1928. 87 pp.

This brochure, being the first report on a general enquiry into unemployment in the Netherlands carried out by a Committee on Economic Policy under the direction of the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry, contains data relating to agriculture, gardening and fisheries.

Statistisch Bureau der Gemeente 's-Gravenhage. Office de Statistique de la Ville de La Haye. *Onderzoek naar de kosten van het levensonderhoud te 's-Gravenhage in 1927. De kosten van het levensonderhoud van arbeiderageзinnen in 1913-1914 en 1921; indexcijfers 1913-1914-1928. Enquête sur le coût de la vie à La Haye en 1927. Coût de la vie de ménages d'ouvriers en 1913-1914 et 1921; chiffres indices 1913-1914-1928.* The Hague, 1928. IV + 36 pp. Fl. 0.50.

This study gives the results of a family budget enquiry covering 27 households of public officials in the Hague. Information was obtained for one month in each quarter of the year. The statistics obtained show that in 1927 food and drink represented about 35 per cent. of the total expenditure; clothing, including boots and shoes, about 13 per cent; rent 13 per cent; gifts, subscriptions, education, books, nearly 8½ per cent. and furniture 5½ per cent. Detailed information is given on the expenditure of each of the 27 families. Comparisons are made with the results of previous enquiries. The study includes a series of cost-of-living index numbers based on working-class consumption covering the period 1913-1914 to September 1928.

NORWAY

Riksforsikringsanstalten. *Sykeforsikringen for aret 1927.* Norges offisielle statistikk. VIII. 80. Oslo, Aschehoug, 1928. 82 pp.

Annual report for 1927 on Norwegian sickness insurance. The total membership of the approved sickness funds at the end of 1927 is given as 611,244, the increase during the year being about 8,000.

RUMANIA

Ministerul Industriei si Comertului. Institutul de Statistica Generala a Statului. Ministère de l'Industrie et du Commerce. Institut de Statistique générale de l'État. *Anuarul Statistic al Romaniei 1927. Annuaire statistique de la Roumanie.* Bucarest, 1928. XXXI + 471 pp.

RUSSIA

Central Statistical Board. *Ten Years of Soviet Power in Figures, 1917-1927.* Moscow, 1927. XIV + 546 pp.

Statistical handbook compiled on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of the Bolshevist Revolution. In addition to statistical tables it contains suggestive diagrams relating to agriculture, industry, labour, food and housing conditions, commerce, transport, finance, etc. The section devoted to demography furnishes preliminary data on the results of the general census of December 1926. Section III entitled " Political Statistics " deals with the political organisation of the U.S.S.R. (Soviets and the Communist Party).

SPAIN

Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria. Direccion General de Accion social y Emigracion. Servicios de Emigracion. *La IIª Conferencia Internacional de Emigracion e Inmigracion.* Serie D. Informaciones. Madrid, 1928. 38 pp.

SWEDEN

Kungl. Lantbruksstyrelsen. *Räkenskapsresultat fran Svenska Jordbruk.* XIII. *Bokföringsaret 1926-1927.* By Ludvig NANNESON. Malmö, 1928. 86 pp.

The thirteenth annual report on accounts from Swedish farms, prepared by Ludvig Nanneson by command of the Board of Agriculture for the year 1926-1927. The book-keeping on 346 farms is investigated as against 300 in the previous year.

Kungl. Socialstyrelsen. *Arbetsinställelser och Kollektivavtal samt Förliknings-männens Verksamhet. Ar 1927.* Sveriges Officiella Statistik. Socialstatistik. Stockholm, 1928. 156 pp.

Report on industrial disputes, collective agreements and conciliation in industrial disputes in Sweden during 1927.

Riksförsäkringsanstalten. *Olycksfall i arbete. Aren 1918-1922.* Sveriges Officiella Statistik. Socialstatistik. Stockholm, Norstedt, 1928. 204 pp.

Report on industrial accidents in Sweden during the period 1918-1922. A summary in French is included.

Statistiska Centralbyran. *Befolkningsrörelsen Oversikt för Aren 1911-1920.* Sveriges Officiella Statistik. Folkmangden och dess Förandringar. Stockholm, 1929. XI + 297 pp.

Statistics relating to the movement of the population in Sweden during the period 1911-1920. A summary of the text in French is included.

UNITED STATES

Department of Commerce. Bureau of Mines. *Quarry Accidents in the United States during the Calendar Year 1926.* By William W. ADAMS. Bulletin 288. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. VI + 90 pp. 15 cents.

Department of Labour. *Sixteenth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labour for the fiscal year ended 30 June 1928.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. VII + 181 pp. 20 cents.

—— **Bureau of Immigration.** *Annual Report of the Commissioner General of Immigration to the Secretary of Labour. Fiscal Year ended 30 June 1928.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. VII + 238 pp. 25 cents.

—— **Bureau of Labour Statistics.** *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labour Statistics. Fiscal Year ended 30 June 1928.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. 68 pp. 15 cents.

Employees' Compensation Commission. *Twelfth Annual Report, 1 July 1927 to 30 June 1928.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. IV + 87 pp. 10 cents.

IOWA

Workmen's Compensation Service. *Eighth Biennial Report. For the Period ending 30 June 1928, and Report of Decisions by the Department and State Courts.* Des Moines, 1928. 159 pp.

PENNSYLVANIA

Department of Agriculture. *A Compilation of the Laws Relating to Agriculture and the Laws Administered by the Department of Agriculture.* Compiled by John H. FERTIG and Paul W. ORTH. Harrisburg, 1928. 230 pp. Paper cover 50 cents ; cloth 75 cents.

Department of Labour and Industry. *Employment Fluctuations in Pennsylvania, 1921 to 1927.* By J. Frederic DEWHURST. Special Bulletin No. 24. Harrisburg, 1928. IX + 192 pp.

The collection of the data forming the basis of this study was commenced more than five years ago in an endeavour to meet the need of the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia for more accurate information on the trends of production, employment and purchasing power in the Philadelphia Federal Reserve District. Mr. Dewhurst points out that Pennsylvania, owing to the great diversity and size of its industries, constitutes a good industrial cross-section of the country, so that the conclusions which he reaches in his study are likely to be of wide application. In the construction of his index number of employment, Mr. Dewhurst made adjustments for changes in population over the period considered and for the seasonal variations in the several industries, and finally obtained weighted or adjusted index numbers for each manufacturing group and for all industries combined. The index numbers thus established reveal the same fluctuations as other indicators of business and financial conditions such as freight car loadings, power production, ratios of bank loans to deposits, and volume of retail sales.

Mr. Dewhurst comments on the effects of the recent tendency to displace labour by machinery and finds that the low level of the employment index in 1921 and 1924, and more recently in 1927, reflected a considerable amount of unemployment in addition to the shift of workers from manufacturing to other occupations. He adds : " Unemployment, moreover, is not confined to these periods of cyclical depression. Even in years of prosperity a considerable amount of seasonal unemployment exists as evidenced by the fluctuations recurring regularly each year in retail trade, in the building industry, and quite noticeably in over half of the manufacturing industries included in the index. "

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Abeler, Dr. Paul. *Die Arbeitsmarktverhältnisse der schwarzwälder Uhrenindustrie in der Nachkriegszeit.* Fragen des Arbeitsmarktes. Dissertationsreihe des Seminars für Arbeitsvermittlung und Berufsberatung an der Universität Münster i. W. Herausgegeben von Dr. Heinrich WEBER und Dr. Bernhard ORDEMANN. Heft IV. Münster, 1928. IX + 114 pp., tables.

Dr. Abeler's monograph, which forms part of a series of works published by the seminary for the study of placing and vocational guidance of the University of Munster, is devoted to a detailed examination of employment in the watch and

clock making industry of the Black Forest. The author deals in turn with the occupational composition of the population in the industrial centres, methods of production, employment fluctuations, and protective measures instituted by the authorities.

Achinstein, Asher. *Buying Power of Labour and Post-War Cycles.* New York, Columbia University Press, 1927. 164 pp.

This study is confined to the two post-war cycles in the United States, the first beginning in the spring of 1919 and ending in the middle of 1921, and the second starting in August 1921 and ending in July 1924. It deals mainly with the fluctuations in factory production and in the pay-roll totals and purchasing power of factory workers. A number of interesting problems are raised and discussed in the statistical treatment of the relations between variations in payrolls, labour costs and the pecuniary volume of production, and a section is devoted to the light thrown by the investigation on the theories put forward by Messrs. Foster and Catchings in their books *Money* and *Profits*. One of the conclusions reached is that fluctuations in consumer purchasing power were of secondary importance as a causal element in the two post-war cycles.

Atschkanow, G. *Kurze Geschichte der Entwicklung der internationalen Bewegung der Transportarbeiter.* Moscow, Internationales Propagandakomitee der Transportarbeiter, 1928. 31 pp.

This brief historical exposition of the foundation and activities of the International Transport Workers' Federation and of the creation of the Transport Workers' International Committee for propaganda purposes, its aims and activities down to 1927, is primarily a polemical work directed against the International Federation of Trade Unions and the reformist trade union organisations.

Ausschuss zur Untersuchung der Erzeugungs- und Absatzbedingungen der deutschen Wirtschaft. *Verhandlungen und Berichte des Unterausschusses für allgemeine Wirtschaftsstruktur.* 1. Unterausschuss. 3. Arbeitsgruppe. *Wandlungen in den wirtschaftlichen Organisationsformen.* Zweiter Teil. *Entwicklungslinien der industriellen und gewerblichen Kartellierung.* Zweiter Abschnitt. *Bau- und Baustoffindustrie.* Berlin, E. S. Mittler, 1928. XIV + 316 pp.

The Committee appointed by the German Government to enquire into the conditions of production and marketing in German industry devotes this part of its report to the study of industrial combines, more especially in the building industry and the building materials industry (iron, reinforced concrete, tiles, cement). It examines the influence of combines on the general position of undertakings, price fixing, competition, building costs, the distribution of tenders, scientific research, etc.

The persons who took part in the enquiry included ministers, deputies, professors, members of the Economic Council, etc. Among the documents included may be mentioned the rules of the organisations, and declarations of representatives of the industries grouped in cartels, of customers and of outsiders.

—— *Verhandlungen und Berichte des Unterausschusses für Gewerbe: Industrie, Handel und Handwerk* (III. Unterausschuss). *Die Rohstoffversorgung der deutschen eisenerzeugenden Industrie.* Berlin, E. S. Mittler, 1928. VIII + 513 pp.

The general results of this enquiry are given in a report of 38 pages at the beginning of the volume, which provides a survey of the sources and conditions of supply of iron-ore and scrap-iron in Germany. It also contains statistical data and an account of the difficulties encountered on the international market. Statistical memoranda and various documents from industrial, scientific and labour sources bearing on the subject provide information of the highest interest.

Baer, Paul. *Das soziale Dumping.* Halberstadt, H. Meyer, 1928. VII + 86 pp.

Dr. Baer has done useful work by his attempt to elucidate the idea underlying the expression "social dumping" and his examination of its practical applications. His book is arranged in three chapters; the first deals with "social dumping" in the general acceptation of the term, i.e. exportation on the basis of a comparative advantage attributed to lower conditions of labour (lower wage level, longer hours of work, smaller cost of social services, etc.) in the exporting than in the importing country. The second chapter is concerned with the protective measures

against dumping or " sweated imports " taken in various countries, more especially in Australia, Great Britain and the United States. The third chapter contains a brief analysis of the " theoretical basis of the thesis of ' social dumping ' ". The author first takes pains to prove that low wages and long hours do not necessarily imply low labour cost in production, and that high wages combined with high productivity mean low prices. In a final section, the conclusion is reached that there really is no such thing as " social dumping ", and that the equalisation duties used as a means of combating it are nothing else but protective duties. The study, on the whole, is interesting, but it does not exhaust the question. In his examination of the relation between wages, hours, efficiency and prices, it may be observed that the author has not sufficiently developed the theory of comparative advantages and costs, nor utilised all the recent statistical material which is available. Above all, it should be noted that the question of " social dumping " is closely related to the question of international labour legislation, and that the problem is not examined in this connection in the book under review.

Banca nazionale dell'Agricoltura. *Credito agrario bonifiche irrigazioni in Italia*. Milan, 1928. 132 pp.

The Italian National Agricultural Bank gives in this volume an exposition of Italian legislation relating to agricultural credit, and shows the importance of loans for the improvement and irrigation of the soil.

Barou, N. *The Co-operative Movement and Co-operative Banking of U.S.S.R.* Introduction by Gaston Levy. London, 1928. 47 pp.

Bayerischer Handwerkskammertag. *Wissenschaftliche Ergebnisse der Ausstellung München 1927 " Das Bayerische Handwerk "*. Herausgegeben von Dr. F. Knoblauch unter Mitwirkung von Dr. Ludwig Pfeuffer. Munich, 1927. 160 pp., illustr.

These articles on occupational and co-operative organisation among German handicraftsmen, apprenticeship schools, vocational guidance, industrial hygiene, social legislation, rational organisation of handicrafts, etc., provide, as a whole, a general survey of the handicrafts system in Germany and particularly in Bavaria.

Bellerby, J. R. *Coalmining: A European Remedy.* London, Macmillan and Co. 73 pp.

A valuable contribution to the search after an international solution of the world coal crisis. After describing the European situation and estimating the limitations of national action, the author discusses the possibilities of international agreements for the regulation of hours and wages and ultimately for the control of output. This little treatise is stimulating to thought.

Bibliographie der Wohlfahrtspflege für 1927. Herausgegeben vom Archiv für Wohlfahrtspflege Berlin. Bearbeitet von Sofie Götze. Erster Jahrgang. Berlin, Carl Heymann, 1928. VIII + 247 pp.

This bibliography covers all publications issued in the form of books or periodicals in Germany in 1927 in the field of social work. There is also an appendix in which a selection of the most important books in this field, issued previous to 1927, are mentioned.

It is intended that similar bibliographies should be issued in future years, and it is hoped that in these subsequent issues literature other than German will be included.

The bibliography is extremely full and is a useful book which reflects great credit on all associated with its production.

Booth, J. F. *Farmers' Co-operative Organisations in New York.* Bulletin 461. Ithaca (N.Y.), Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, 1928. 123 pp.

Contains the results of a study on the development and the present status of farmers' co-operative organisations in New York State.

Farmers have been doing business on a co-operative basis for more than seventy-five years, but the development of co-operative organisations has received more consideration in the past decade than at any previous time.

The application of co-operative principles is not confined to the marketing of farm products or to the purchase of farm supplies. In respect of fire insurance,

telephone service, rural credit, and in other lines of activity, co-operative organisations also perform important service. Particular emphasis is placed in this study on reasons for the success of some associations and on the causes of the failure of others.

Brookings, Robert S. *Agricultural Corporations. The Conversion of Agriculture into a Prosperous Industry. Socialising the Soulless Corporation. A Sequel to Agricultural Corporations.* Washington, 1928. 19 pp.

Mr. Robert S. Brookings examines why agriculture in the United States is in a critical condition, and tries to get a little beyond the usual assumption that prices are too low while costs are not low enough. He quotes with approval the book by Mead and Ostrolenk analysed below. The interest of his little pamphlet lies in the references it makes to recent United States experiments in large-scale agriculture (Campbell, Ford) and in the expression of the author's personal belief that the formation of large-scale agricultural corporations will accomplish in agriculture what big business has accomplished for industry; under such a system the small, but reformed and efficient, agricultural enterprise could continue to operate as a unit in a chain of a agricultural enterprises directed by the corporation.

Brost, Georg. *Die Einflüsse der Sozialpolitik auf den Berufsweg des Kaufmannsgehilfen.* Hamburg, Deutschnationaler Handlungsgehilfen-Verband. 72 pp.

This pamphlet contains the enlarged reprint of a lecture delivered before the 18th Congress of German Shop Assistants in Dresden, 1928. The first part deals with apprenticeship and its legal regulation. The second part is devoted to the employers' practice of restricting the employment of shop assistants above a certain age and possible legal remedies.

Castellino, Nicolo. *Concezione nazionale della Organizzazione Scientifica del Lavoro.* Naples, Vittorio Idelson, 1928. 97 pp.

Coelho d'Andrade, Jose. *Questões de higiene social.* (*Na escola e na oficina.*) Oporto, Tipografia Civilização, 1927. 400 pp.

Confédération générale de la production française. *Annuaire 1928. Répertoire des syndicats patronaux français.* Paris. 337 pp. 40 frs.

Delegazione Operaia Italiana in Russia. *Le questioni russe* nel colloquio con Bucarin. *Le questioni sindicali* nel colloquio con Losovski. Paris, Edizioni italiane di coltura sociale. 63 pp.

Contains the text of the two statements made to the Italian Workers' Delegation to Russia by Bukharin, Secretary to the Third International and exponent of Bolshevist theory, and by Lozovsky, president of the Red International Federation of Trade Unions. The first deals with the home policy of the Soviet Government, the second with international trade union policy.

Der Neubau des öffentlichen Arbeitsnachweises Nürnberg. 64 pp., illustr.
Der Neubau des öffentlichen Arbeitsnachweises Dresden und Umg. Eine Werbeschrift anlässlich der Eröffnung des neuen Gebäudes Oktober 1926. Herausgegeben von Dr. Nerschmann. 71 pp., illustr.

These two brochures, which are provided with numerous photographs and detailed plans, help to make clear the architectural conceptions according to which the buildings occupied by the employment exchanges in two of the principal towns in Germany (Nuremberg and Dresden) have been planned.

Deslinières, Lucien. *Dans l'ornière marxiste. En France. En Russie. Pour en sortir. Le socialisme reconstructeur.* Paris, France-édition, 1927. 330 pp.

The author's stated object is to give "an analysis of the political and economic situation in Russia and in France, to bring to light the tactical errors of the socialist minorities who exercise power or influence, to show the baneful consequences, and to define the conditions under which socialistic life could be born and develop." In fact, the analysis of the situation in Russia bears almost exclusively on the economic aspect, while as regards France it is the political movement which is examined. The author suggests certain solutions designed to lift Russia and

France out of the " Marxist rut ". He describes his schemes for translating his theories into practice, and, notably, a plan of socialistic colonisation in Morocco, and a programme of reorganisation of State farms in Russia.

Dobb, Maurice. *Wages.* Introduction by J. M. KEYNES. Cambridge Economic Handbooks, VI. London, Nisbet and Co.; Cambridge, University Press. IX + 169 pp.

The purpose of the series of handbooks to which this volume belongs is to give to the ordinary reader and uninitiated student a lucid, accurate, and illuminating account of the elements of economic science; it is not directed towards making original contributions. Mr. Dobb gives an excellent survey of the chief wage problems. He begins by contrasting and comparing the modern wage system with slavery, serfdom, and that of the independent artisan. The removal of all legal restrictions on the labourer's freedom constitutes one of the prior conditions for the rise of the wage system.

Wages are next considered in relation to other elements of the national income or to the gross product of an undertaking; they are also considered in relation to the cost of living, price changes, and minimum standards of living. International differences in real wages are noted, reference being made to the International Labour Office comparisons. The economy of high wages is discussed and a survey given of piece-work and bonus systems of payment designed to secure greater intensity of work. Sub-contracting and the truck system are described and their evils indicated. An account is given of profit-sharing and of the relation between wages and hours of labour.

Theories of wages are then discussed. Doubts are raised as to the validity of the classical theory that the wage, i.e. the price of labour, is determined in the same manner as the price of any other commodity. The subsistence, wages-fund, and marginal productivity theories are also criticised. These theories, which still have a wide vogue, usually imply that trade union action and legislative interference can have little permanent effect in raising the general level of wages. But Mr. Dobb is of opinion that the workers' bargaining power has considerable influence on the " supply curve " of labour. Habit and custom also, he says, have more influence on the " supply price " of labour than is usually recognised. On the demand side, there appears no reason to accept the rigidity of the wages-fund idea. The conventional standards of consumption of capitalists may be an important factor in determining the relation between saving and spending, with reactions on the supply curve of capital and therefore on capital's demand for labour. It follows that " the old theory, formulated as a group of equations, only remains consistent by assuming certain quantities as given (or as ' constants ') which can in practice be influenced by custom and hence by arbitrary ' interference ', such as that of collective bargaining or legislative action ".

Mr. Dobb estimates that in Great Britain, with conditions remaining as they are, the maximum possible wage increase by redistribution of the national income, after providing for taxation, new capital, and subsistence income for non-wage earners, would be about 20 per cent. He is, however, of opinion that there is little practical possibility of such an increase by measures of redistribution.

The remainder of the book discusses wage differences, including the relation between wages in different occupations, industries, districts, and countries. The relation between men's and women's wages is considered. Trade union wage policy and minimum wage problems are examined. Readers who wish for a concise review of the subject cannot do better than study Mr. Dobb's book.

Erkelenz, Anton. *Wirtschaft und Sozialpolitik.* Crimmitschau, Rohland and Berthold, 1927. 45 pp.

Contains the text of an address delivered in April 1927 at Hamburg on the occasion of a meeting of the German Democratic Party. The author attempts to define the possibilities and the limits of social policy within the framework of public economy. He detects an inconsistency in the attitude of social democracy, which, he says, while advocating a liberal trade union policy, is conservative in its social policy, since it recommends compulsory insurance — a mark of distrust towards the individual's sense of responsibility. The author considers that social insurance does not contribute towards increasing the purchasing power of the workers, for if it did not exist, the latter would benefit in the form of increased wages by the amount employers now allocate to insurance contributions.

A special article included as an appendix examines from this point of view the advantages and disadvantages of the present system of compulsory insurance against unemployment in Germany.

Fehr, Hans. *Recht und Wirklichkeit. Einblick in Werden und Vergehen der Rechtsformen.* Das Weltbild. Bücher des Lebendigen Wissens. Herausgeber Hans Prinzhorn. Erster Band. Potsdam, Mühler and Kiepenheuer; Zurich, Orell Füssli, 1928. 192 pp. 3.30 marks.

The author examines the origin and evolution of legal forms from the standpoint of the philosophy of law. He gives an exposition of various current theories concerning the nature of law, then proceeds to develop his own doctrine. His book presents more than a philosophical interest; it is a vigorous work in which law is shown in its relation to human instincts and aspirations. The author also deals with the social rôle of the State and the differences which arise between the authorities and citizens outside the legislature enjoying the right of initiative. Some pages are devoted to the law of property in Soviet Russia.

Feldman, Herman. *Prohibition. Its Economic and Industrial Aspects.* New York, London, D. Appleton and Co., 1927. xv + 415 pp.

This study contains the results of a preliminary and objective survey of prohibition in the United States. It is based on a number of articles originally published in *The Christian Science Monitor*, which have been revised, and to which new material, including an appendix dealing with deaths from alcoholism, has been added. The book deals exclusively with the economic and industrial aspects of prohibition, and the author has avoided any discussion of the controversial issue as to whether or not the Eighteenth Amendment should have been passed, or the legislation relating to prohibition should have taken the form of the Volstead Act. The treatment is mainly statistical, and the methods of investigation employed are explained in an introductory chapter. In view of the relatively short period during which the prohibition law has been in force and the absence of complete data, no definite conclusions are drawn. The tentative deduction indicated in the closing chapter, however, is that the economic advantages of prohibition have, so far, outweighed its economic disadvantages. "With better enforcement of the law", the author considers, "the change has enormous economic potentialities of a permanent character." On the other hand, certain statistical data, if they are to be regarded as indexes of the working of the law, have not been entirely satisfactory during the past two years.

The book is arranged in two parts, dealing respectively with the effects of prohibition upon consumption and purchasing power, and its effects upon production. The economic importance of the redirection of expenditure is traced in the rise in the standard of living of the wage earners, in the use of workers' spare time, in a general increase of thrift, and particularly in the expansion in the assets of building and loan associations. Other questions of interest dealt with are the effect on taxation, the drug habit, crime, industrial accidents, the efficiency of the worker, and on certain industries, including the hotel industry and agriculture.

"The economic benefits of prohibition, like all the other benefits", the author points out, "depend not on the enactment of statutory prohibition, but on the achievement of prohibition in fact." It is clearly apparent that "prohibition is in the throes of a most crucial experience, and the next few years bid fair to be decisive in establishing how far the present legislation can achieve its purposes."

Friedlaender, Dr. Otto von. *Hammer, Sichel und Mütze.* Eindrücke aus dem heutigen Russland. Berlin, Textil-Verlag, 1927. 119 pp.

The author visited Russia in the spring of 1927, at the request of a group of German textile manufacturers, with the object of examining the possibilities of a closer economic collaboration between the German and the Russian textile industries. Dr. Friedlaender visited a large number of factories, of which he gives an interesting and objective, though necessarily somewhat superficial, description. He also gives interesting glimpses of life in Soviet Russia, without, however, arriving at any definite conclusion. Struck by the contrast he observed between theory and facts, he hesitates in deciding whether Russia is plunged in utter darkness or whether a new day is dawning.

Fuchs, Dr. Georg. *Genossenschaftsrecht und Genossenschaftswesen.* 2. umgearbeitete Auflage. Gloeckners Handels-Bücherei herausgegeben von Professor Adolf Ziegler. Band 92. Leipzig, G. A. Gloeckner, 1928. 128 pp.

Important modifications have been made in this revised edition of Dr. Fuchs's work, the author having taken into account legislative changes and some new works published since the appearance of the former edition — in particular the Crüger-Crecelius and Citron *Commentary* which appeared in 1928 — and some developments in legal practice.

Gonnard, René. *Essai sur l'histoire de l'émigration.* Paris, Librairie Valois, 1928. 368 pp. 18 frs.

Mr. Gonnard, of the Faculty of Law of Lyons, author of important treatises on European emigration, has not attempted a complete and detailed history of migration. He has confined himself, he says, to presenting "a rapid historical and statistical study"; but, having regard to the abundant and varied selection of documents so happily turned to account in his work, few readers will accept such a modest definition. The author has not limited his study to any special period or aspect of migration, nor has he been content merely to enumerate facts and to furnish figures. He gives some carefully prepared general surveys, accompanied by summary expositions which are full of interest. It would seem that Mr. Gonnard has a preference for the political and demographic aspects of his subject, and the reader cannot help being struck by the manner in which he brings to light the interdependence of migratory fluctuations and development in the birth rate and evolution of the population in countries of emigration and immigration.

Mr. Gonnard understands the necessity of control of emigration and immigration (especially with a view to preventing a country of immigration from exceeding its capacity of economic absorption or political assimilation), but he also fears over-restriction, the evils of which, from the general standpoint, he emphasises. He notes the trend towards internationalism in the treatment of the emigration problem since the war, with, however, as yet only partial and ill co-ordinated results. He expresses a hope that some general solutions may reconcile the interests of the emigration and immigration countries, while at the same time ensuring greater stability. Mr. Gonnard appears to have reserved for a later work his views on this subject, and it is to be hoped that the scheme will be carried into effect.

Gonzalés Cortes, Dr. E. *Informe presentado al Honorable Senado acerca de los resultados de la Décima Conferencia Internacional del Trabajo celebrada en Ginebra en el tema del seguro de enfermedad con algunas consideraciones respecto a la ley 4054 y el proyecto de modificaciones que penden de su conocimiento.* Santiago, T. Conelli y Cia., 1928. 81 pp.

Handelskammer Stuttgart. Auskunftsabteilung. *Deutsche Passvorschriften und Einreisebestimmungen des Auslandes.* Anhang: *Verzeichnisse der Pass- und Sichtvermerksbehörden im Inland und der ausländischen Konsulate in Deutschland.* Stuttgart, 1928. 70 pp.

Heimburger, Dr. Karl. *Die Theorie von der industriellen Reservearmee.* Halberstadt, H. Meyer, 1928. xii + 165 pp.

Study on the theory of a reserve labour supply in industry. In the first chapter Dr. Heimburger gives a history of the economic position in Great Britain during the first half of the nineteenth century, which inspired the Marxist conceptions. Karl Marx's theory of a reserve labour supply in industry is set forth in the second, third and fourth chapters. Subsequent chapters are devoted to a criticism and refutation of the thesis. The work includes a detailed bibliography.

Hoeffding, Dr. W. *Der russische Arbeiter unter der kommunistischen Herrschaft.* Sonderabdruck aus einem demnächst erscheinenden Sammelwerke *Zehn Jahre der kommunistischen Herrschaft in Russland.* Charlottenburg, Gebr. Hoffmann. 31 pp.

A rapid and interesting survey of hours of work, the housing problem, unemployment and labour protection in the U.S.S.R., based entirely on official Soviet sources.

Horand, F. *Eidg. Gewerbe-Gesetzgebung. Das Angestelltenrecht. Richtlinien und Postulate. Genehmigt von der Schweiz. Angestelltenkammer in ihren Sitzungen vom 14. und 15. September 1928.* Bearbeitet im Auftrage der Vereinigung Schweiz. Angestelltenverbände. Zurich, 1928. 39 pp.

Howard-Ellis, C. *The Origin, Structure and Working of the League of Nations.* London, George Allen and Unwin, 1928. 528 pp.

"The League of Nations", the author writes, "is no less than the beginning of the last and greatest stage in social integration, the nucleus of a world polity." It has now been in existence for well-nigh a decade, and many more or less brief descriptions of its organisation and functions, and chronological records of its achievements, have been published. Mr. Howard-Ellis's book forms the first part of a more ambitious work, planned to give in fullest detail an account of its institution, history and outlook. The work is arranged to appear in three volumes: the first, now under review, deals, as its title indicates, with the origin, structure and working of the League, including the International Labour Office and the Permanent Court of International Justice. Volume II will deal with the record and possibilities of the League, among the most interesting features being an account of its humanitarian activities, the achievements of the International Labour Organisation, economic reconstruction, and the peaceful settlement of disputes. Volume III, entitled *Toward World Polity: A Survey and a Forecast*, will review the world to-day in the light of the policies and tendencies for which the League stands, and the possibilities of a world society.

In the first section of the present volume the author describes how the League was born of a mingling of pre-war forces with post-war circumstances, and the reasons which determined the form given to it by the Covenant. In the second he gives an account of its structure and working, reviewing in turn the constitution and membership of the League, the Assembly, Council and Secretariat, the International Labour Organisation (origin, nature and competence, organisation and functions, relations with the League, membership, the International Labour Conference, the International Labour Office, and the Governing Body) and the Permanent Court of International Justice. There is a special chapter on the nature and status of international law before and during the world war, and the changes in international law introduced by the League. A final chapter deals with the technique of the League (technical co-operation, procedure, etc.).

In the conclusions drawn as a result of the foregoing study, the author states: "There is no doubt that in some ways the International Labour Organisation is the most far-reaching and direct attack on cherished dogmas of international anarchy and mystic sovereignty, and the most direct recognition of the changed status of labour and the overwhelming importance in modern society of the relations between labour and capital, to which governments have been — or are likely in the future to be — committed in the field of international relations."

The texts of the Covenant of the League of Nations, Part XIII of the Peace Treaty, and the Statute for the Permanent Court of International Justice are given as an annex.

Jahrbuch der Filmindustrie. 3. Jahrgang 1926-1927. Herausgegeben von Karl Wolffsohn. Berlin, Verlag der Lichtbildbühne, 1928. 848 pp.

This year book includes an important statistical part furnishing information on the development of the cinema industry in Germany, and the film trade both in that and in other countries.

Data are also given on cinema theatres and the manufacture of film and of positives ready for use.

An important chapter deals with legal practice relating to the film industry, and particularly to labour questions. The national collective agreement for the German cinema industry and various court decisions concerning Sunday work and the employment of orphans in cinema studios are reprinted. A chapter is given to legislation relating to the moral protection of children (permission to visit cinema theatres) in different countries. Subsequent chapters are devoted to producers' organisations, dealers in the hire and sale of films, and directors or owners of cinema theatres; financial and other information on the different firms connected with the film industry is included. Finally, some particulars are given on the censorship of films in Germany and on the preparation of films.

A comprehensive list of films produced in the different countries and an extensive bibliography of periodicals and works relating to the cinema industry complete the volume.

Jahrbuch des Reichsversicherungs-, Reichsversorgungs- und Fürsorgerechts. In Verbindung mit Dr. MENTZEL, Dr. MOLL, herausgegeben von Dr. Hs. Th. SOERGEL. 16. Jahrgang, enthaltend Rechtsprechung und Zeitschriftenaufsätze des Jahres 1927. Stuttgart, W. Kohlhammer, 1928. x + 228 pp.

Janvier, Jean-Marie. *Organisation professionnelle et repos hebdomadaire (Loi du 29 décembre 1923).* Thèse pour le doctorat en droit. Université de Paris. Faculté de droit. Paris, Les Presses universitaires de France. 157 pp.

After examining the evolution of legislation in favour of occupational organisation and noting the results attained, the author attempts to show how " the institution of the weekly rest day, alone, illustrates the birth, development and outcome of the vast movement tending towards an ideal of occupational organisation ".

He recalls the institution of the weekly rest day in France by the Act of 13 July 1906, draws attention to the abuses arising from frequent derogations which tended to generalise the practice of a rotational rest day, and notes the reaction in favour of "a weekly, Sunday, and collective rest day" —a reaction which brought about the passing of the Act of 29 December 1923. This Act introduced a new principle, " compulsory closing ", and made its application depend on agreements between the employers' and workers' organisations in a stated occupation and a stated district, thus implying the existence of occupational organisations. The development of the idea of the weekly rest day, the author points out, assisted the progress of the idea of occupational organisation.

This study on the weekly rest day in relation to occupational organisation is followed by a chapter on the occupational organisation of to-morrow. The author summarises the position in Great Britain, Germany, Italy and Spain. Finally, he shows the part which " occupations " may be called upon to play in the social organisation of the future. A short bibliography is included.

Knezmarek, Czeslaw. *L'émigration polonaise en France après la guerre.* Publications de l'École des sciences sociales et politiques de Lille. Paris, Berger-Levrault, 1928. XII + 517 pp.

Knackfuss, Karl. *Die Arbeitszeit-Frage in den rheinisch-westfälischen Eisen- und Stahlindustrie. Ihre Entwicklung und produktions-technische Bedeutung.* Inaugural Dissertation zur Erlangung der Doktorwürde der Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Köln. Betzdorf a.d. Sieg, Buchdruckerei E. A. Böckelmann, 1927. VIII + 142 pp.

The author examines from the technical standpoint the principal aspects of the problem of hours of work in the Rhenish-Westphalian metal industries from 1913 to 1927.

Koch-Miesbach, Arthur. *Als Arbeiterdelegierter in Russland.* II. Arbeiter-Delegation Sommer 1926. Hamburg, Auer and Co., 1927. 32 pp. 30 pf.

The author visited Russia during the summer of 1926 as a member of a German workers' delegation. In this pamphlet he protests against the summary manner in which the Russian undertakings were visited, against the fact that all the visits were " prepared ", and against the official report of the delegation, which is said to have been drawn up by its communist vice-president in accordance with the directions of the Soviet Government and to be based exclusively on unverified data derived from official sources. The author then gives a striking account of what he saw and learnt during interviews with Russian workers. He concludes that liberty is non-existent in Soviet Russia and that there can be no question of a dictatorship of the proletariat, but only of a dictatorship of the Communist Party.

Kornilowicz, Kazimierz. *Akcja Spoleczno-Kulturalna w Gornictwie Angielskiem. Le fonds de bien-être social des mineurs en Grande Bretagne. Avec un supplément traitant des œuvres analogues en Tchécoslovaquie et du fonds silésien des Kux libres.* Institut d'Économie sociale. Notices d'information No. 3. Warsaw, 1929. 96 pp.

An account of the working of the British Miners' Welfare Fund, based on the author's observations of the activities of the Lanarkshire Miners' Welfare Committee. A supplement deals with similar funds in Czechoslovakia and Upper Silesia (*Fundusz Wolnych Kuksow*).

Krahmann, Max. *Bergwirtschaftliche Arbeitsgemeinschaft. Eine Programmschrift.* Berlin, Kurt Vowinkel Verlag, 1928. VIII + 184 pp.

In 1926 Mr. Krahmann, of the Technical High School of Charlottenburg, submitted to the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation a proposal for the establishment of an International Institute of Mines. In the present book Mr. Krahmann gives details as to the organisation of the suggested institute, which would aim at the promotion of international understanding by means of scientific research and practical agreement concerning methods, etc., in mining. An appendix (pp. 91-184) contains various documents relating to the subject and the draft constitution of a *Bergwirtschaftliche Arbeitsgemeinschaft* intended to lead to the establishment of an International Institute of Mines.

Krjijanovsky, G. M. *Dix années d'édification économique en U.R.S.S. 1917-1927.* Paris, Bureau d'Éditions. 144 pp. 8 frs.

Kupers, E. *De elfde internationale Arbeidsconferentie te Genève.* Overgedrukt uit *De Socialistische Gids*, Jaargang XIII, Juli 1928. Amsterdam. 16 pp.

L'activité de l'I.C. du V^e^ au VI^e^ Congrès. Paris, Bureau d'Éditions, 1928. 682 pp. 12 frs.

This report describes the activities of the Executive Committee of the Communist International and of its organs and sections in different countries and gives an account of economic and political conditions in those countries from 1924 to 1928.

Letterhaus, Bernhard, and Rohr, Franz. *Grössenordnungen in Volk und Wirtschaft.* Berlin, Christlicher Gewerkschaftsverlag, 1928. XXIV + 527 pp.

It is essential that the men who contribute towards the evolution of the conditions of social life should have an exact idea of the importance and bearing of the factors which influence that evolution. The progress achieved in the statistical field has done much to meet this need of information. But it appeared to the authors of this work that a universal statistical manual, giving in an easily accessible form data relating to peoples and their living conditions, was required. Their intention has been to supply this much-felt want, and to provide the reader with an exact record of political, economic and social phenomena. Although the data furnished are more complete for Germany than for other countries, the manual constitutes a truly international source of information to which anyone wishing to acquaint himself with world correlations may profitably refer.

Ludkiewicz, Zdzislaw. *Warunki Emigracji Rolnej do Francji.* Warsaw, Panstwowego Banku Rolnego, 1929. XI + 225 pp., tables.

Professor Ludkiewicz's work, published under the auspices of the Polish State Agricultural Bank, deals with the possibilities of Polish agricultural emigration to France. It contains the results of a personal investigation on the spot. The author deals in turn with the natural and economic conditions of agricultural production, rural structure in France, conditions of production in the different districts, crops, *métayage*, farm rents, and organisation of agricultural credit. The last chapter is a study of France considered as a country of immigration, and of her capacity to absorb immigrants, particularly agricultural workers. The author examines the principles which should be observed in the organisation of working-class and agricultural emigration. He declares himself in favour of the creation of centres or large farms on which workers coming from Poland could obtain temporary paid work before contracting as *métayers*.

Malaia entsiklopedia po mejdounarodnomou profdvijeniiou. (*Encyclopédie du mouvement syndical international*). Edited by M. SELIKMANN. Preface by A. LOZOVSKY. Moscow, Profitern, 1927. II + 2,170 pp.

This encyclopædia, edited by the Red International Federation of Trade Unions, is specially designed for militant trade unionists. Most of the articles included are very short, the work being intended for propaganda purposes. It gives, nevertheless, some interesting details on the international trade union movement and its principal leaders.

Marconcini, Federico. *L'economia del lavoro. Lineamenti di una dottrina etico personalistica del lavoro produttivo.* Pubblicazioni della Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Vol. IX. Serie seconda : Scienze giuridiche. Milan. 674 pp. 45 lire.

Martial, Dr. René. *La greffe inter-raciale et l'immigration dans l'agriculture (histoire ethnographique, psychologie technique).* Extrait du *Concours médical*, décembre 1928. Paris. 47 pp.

Dr. Martial is the author of numerous studies on questions of social hygiene and prophylaxis. He has given much attention during recent years to questions relating to immigration in France, and has repeatedly proposed the adoption of a programme of methodical organisation of immigration in that country under the name of " inter-racial grafting ". His latest work includes, in addition to various historical considerations, a critical examination of the methods at present employed in regard to Polish immigration in France, and a statement of the methods of selection and psychological adaptation which he advocates.

Dr. Martial's study presents special interest by reason of the situation he describes, and the defects he points out as calling for more rational remedies and less superficial attention from the public and competent circles. Special mention may be made of his examination of the organisation in Poland of recruitment of workers for France, a question into which the author has made a personal investigation on the spot.

Marx, Karl. *Capital. A Critique of Political Economy. The Process of Capital Production.* Translated from the Fourth German Edition by Eden and Cedar Paul. London, George Allen and Unwin, 1928. xvi + 927 pp.

This translation is made from the fourth German edition of *Das Kapital*, Book I, *Der Produktionsprozess des Kapitals.* Published in 1890, seven years after the author's death, that edition was revised by Engels and is the definitive form of the original text.

Mead, Edward Sherwood, and Ostrolenk, Bernhard. *Harvey Baum. A Study of the Agricultural Revolution.* Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press ; London, Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press, 1928. 149 pp.

Briefly stated, the authors' thesis, supported by a formidable array of figures quoted from the reports of the Department of Agriculture, is the over-expansion of agriculture in the United States. There are, it is contended, too many men, too much land, and far too many agricultural enterprises, if production is carried on efficiently, to satisfy the reasonable demands of American consumption. That consumption demands are rigid, except in so far as population increases, is perhaps too sweeping an assertion, and insufficient account is taken by the authors of the absorption capacities of non-American countries.

Nevertheless, there is much to be learnt from this little book. The authors draw attention to the analogy between the revolution in industrial production at the beginning of the nineteenth century, and the revolution in agricultural production at the beginning of the twentieth, and the results brought about by the wholesale introduction of machinery. The adoption of scientific methods by the few lifts them momentarily above the mass of general failure, but such is the " paradox " of scientific agriculture that, while proving the salvation of the individual, if generally adopted it will swell production to such gigantic heights in the long run as to cause " the ruin of the mass ". The authors examine the practical difficulties involved in the administration of " farm relief ", giving particular attention to the McNary-Haugen proposals. The scheme, they argue, would not only greatly increase the cost of living of the American consumer, but would eventually defeat its own object. Any benefit derived would necessarily be of a temporary nature, since increased production would adversely affect the market price and hasten the elimination of the inefficient farmers. Their belief is that the size of the agricultural industry must shrink as the rate of agricultural production increases. The effects on population movements and the occupations of the people are bound to be very great. The last paragraphs of the book are devoted to the suggestion that the best service which can be rendered to American agriculture is to train the younger generation of farm population for city employment.

Menzel, Adolf. *Friedrich Weiser als Soziologe.* Vienna, Verlag Julius Springer, 1927. 52 pp.

Professor Menzel summarises here the sociological theories of the late Friedrich Weiser, taking as a basis his standard work *Das Gesetz der Macht* and other writings.

Moeller, Dr. Hero. *Statistik.* Berlin, Vienna, Spaeth und Linde, 1928. XIV + 149 pp. 6.20 mks.; bound 8.20 mks.

Mühsam, Dr. Kurt. *Film und Kino.* Dünnhaupts Studien- und Berufsführer. Herausgegeben von Dr. Kurt JAGOW und Dr. Friedrich MATTHAESIUS. Band 15. Dessau, E. Dünnhaupt, 1927. VIII + 114 pp.

This little manual should prove an excellent guide to those seeking information on film production. The chief occupations in the cinematograph industry (actor, *figurant*, stage-manager, operator, electrician, etc.) are dealt with in a special chapter. Other chapters are devoted to schools for film artists, musicians of cinema halls, relations between the press and the cinema, and the scenario. The chapters devoted to the different occupations contain numerous particulars on working conditions, wages and salaries, and capacities required. All these special particulars relate solely to the cinema industry in Germany.

Popoff, N. *La coopération de consommation dans l'U.R.S.S.* Paris, Éditions sociales internationales. 67 pp. 3.50 frs.

Pughe, The Rev. T. St.J. P. *The Problem of Migration and Unemployment. Being a Report on a Visit to Australia.* Foreword by the Rt. Hon. L. S. AMERY, M.P. London, Simpkin Marshall, 1928. 31 pp. 6d.

This is a report on a visit to Australia by the former Honorary Director of Migration of the Church Army in England. Canon Pughe notes that Australia is facing a great financial depression and those in authority there are preparing for bad times. He says that this is due to over-borrowing. It has already led to decreased immigration and must continue to do so for some time. On the other hand he thinks that Great Britain is too much inclined to regard emigration as the main remedy for unemployment. It is suggested that with the hearty co-operation of the Dominions more might be done to stimulate migration, but even so the question of unemployment would remain and must be solved by the British people themselves. The main motive for emigration from Great Britain should be, in Canon Pughe's opinion, the strengthening and building up of the British Empire.

Ratner, G. *Die landwirtschaftlichen Genossenschaften in der Sowjetunion. Mit einer schematischen Darstellung.* Berlin, Paul Parey, 1928. 64 pp.

This full and detailed exposition of the organisation of agricultural co-operation in Soviet Russia also supplies facts relating to the activity and position of the different branches of co-operation (dairying, flax, cereals, potatoes, beetroot growing, etc.) but does not deal with agricultural co-operative credit societies.

Rechtsvergleichendes Handwörterbuch für das Zivil- und Handelsrecht des In- und Auslandes. Herausgegeben von Dr. Franz SCHLEGELBERGER. Zweiter Band. Sechste und siebente Lieferung. (*Bedingung—Beuterecht.*) Berlin, Franz Vahlen. 1928. Pp. 401-560.

Reichsbund der Kriegsbeschädigten, Kriegsteilnehmer und Kriegerhinterbliebenen. *Gesetz über das Verfahren in Versorgungssachen (Verfahrensgesetz) in der Fassung vom 20. März 1928.* Mit Erläuterungen von Johannes ROA. Berlin, 1928. 135 pp.

Resta, Raffaele. *Il lavoro e la scuola del lavoro.* Milan, Rome, Naples, Albrighi Segati e Cia., 1928. VIII + 402 pp. 20 lire.

Sapir, Saul. *Die Konsumgenossenschaften in Russland, ihre Theorie und Praxis.* Riga, Buchdruckerei "Vörds", 1928. VIII + 260 pp.

Thesis submitted to the University of Berne. It is in two parts, with an introduction in which the author sets forth the theoretical principles of the modern co-operative movement. The first part of the book deals with the evolution of distributive co-operative societies in Russia from its beginnings in 1865 down to the Bolshevist revolution. The second contains an exposition of the co-operative policy of the Communist Party and describes the development of distributive co-operative societies down to 1925.

The author examines in great detail the problems connected with consumers' co-operation, utilising the very full documentation consulted at the International Labour Office. He reaches the conclusion that the material progress achieved by consumers' co-operation since the revolution is superior to that made under the old regime, but that, at the same time, the co-operative movement has lost its independence and is no longer self-supporting. The progress noted has been possible only at the price of a transformation of co-operative societies into State organs. A copious bibliography completes Mr. Sapir's study.

Schaletzki, L. *Weist das Jugendrecht der Nachkriegszeit eine Tendenz zur Vereinfachung auf?* Inaugural-Dissertation zur Erlangung der Doktorwürde der wirtschafts- und sozialwissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Köln. Cologne, Druckerei der Kölner Studentenburse, 1927. 85 pp.

The author reviews the development of various branches of legislation concerning children and young persons since 1919. He concludes that there has been a marked tendency towards unification and simplification.

Schlack, Peter. *Mitbesitz und Mitbestimmung in der Wirtschaft.* Vorwort von Dr. Th. Brauer. Verbrauchergenossenschaftliche Bücherei. Herausgegeben vom Reichsverband deutscher Konsumvereine, Nr. 16. Cologne, Gepag-Verlag, 1928. 53 pp.

Schneider, Dr. Egidius. *Der Landarbeiterwohnungsbau.* Flugschriften des Verbandes Wohnungsbau Nr. 2. München-Gladbach. 24 pp.

This pamphlet gives practical information on the construction of agricultural workers' dwellings in Germany, either with money borrowed from the Fund for Productive Unemployment Relief, or according to the Homestead Act of 10 May 1920.

Schulz, Georg. *Abgrenzung zwischen Unfallversicherung und Krankenversicherung.* Schriften des Instituts für Arbeitsrecht an der Universität Leipzig, herausgegeben von Prof. Dr. Erwin Jacobi. 17. Heft. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1928. 106 pp.

Seidel, Richard. *The Trade Union Movement of Germany.* Including a Section on *The Non-Manual Workers' Trade Union Movement* by Bernhard Göring. International Trade Union Library, Nos. 7-8. Amsterdam, International Federation of Trade Unions, 1928. 157 pp.

The German edition of this work was analysed in the March 1928 issue of the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVII, No. 3, p. 461.

A French edition will also be published.

Shadwell, Arthur. *Typhoeus or the Future of Socialism.* To-day and To-morrow Series. London, Kegan, Paul, Trench, Trubner and Co.; New York, E. P. Dutton and Co., 1929. 116 pp. 2s. 6d.

In earlier works Dr. Shadwell discussed at length the history and prospects of Socialism, bringing keen insight to bear on its main problems. The present little volume offers further opportunity for his clear logic and his talent as a controversialist. He reviews once again the effect of the war in bringing Socialism to the fore as a practical issue in politics, and discusses the chief tenets of its various exponents. He detects here some confusion of thought and argues the irreconcilability of certain socialist aims, naturally leading, he says, to division about means. Dr. Shadwell then reviews socialistic developments since the war, in Germany, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Sweden, Denmark, Belgium and Great Britain, and speculates on where these developments are likely to lead. There is an interesting reference to land reform in Czechoslovakia, in which the author quotes from an article which appeared in the *International Labour Review* (Vol. XII, Nos. 1 and 2, July and Aug. 1925).

With regard to the future, the general conclusion drawn is that "no simple uniform system is possible", and "just as the common interests compelled the progressive restriction of Individualism before Socialism had gained any power, so will they restrict the action of Socialism whenever and wherever it gains power." Some new arrangements will come as social reforms. He agrees with Sombart in holding that "there is no great difference between a stabilised and regulated 'Capitalism and a technified and rationalised Socialism. They tend", he says, "to come slowly together."

Shaw, Bernard. *The Intelligent Woman's Guide to Socialism and Capitalism.* London, Constable, 1928. xxxvi + 495 pp.

More than twenty years ago Mr. Bernard Shaw in a lecture propounded the theory that in a really civilised country wealth in the form of income should be distributed equally, and that the only form of Socialism that really mattered was one in which income was shared in accordance with this principle. In this volume he gives in elaborate detail the grounds on which he bases his theory. He subjects to keen scrutiny the existing methods by which wealth is divided and the various proposals for replacing them, other than his own, which have been advocated by reformers. Here he gives full play to his keen wit and his fertility and ingenuity in illustrating an argument. He does not refrain from expressing candid views concerning certain aspects of the Socialist movement and of Socialist thought, and he insists that every student of economic problems must approach them with an open mind.

The volume is, however, more than a defence of the theory of equality of income. Nearly every aspect of the present economic system is examined and multifarious social and economic questions are carefully explained. The scope of the work may be judged from a few titles of the eighty-four chapters it contains: Money; Speculation; Banking; National Debt Redemption Levies; Rent of Ability; Subsidised Private Enterprise, and so on. Further, a brief history is given of the rise of the British Labour Party and the modern development of trade unionism. He makes enlightening comments upon Communism and Bolshevism and the possibility of creating a Socialist State by means of revolution. In this regard he remains as much a Fabian as ever with a strong sense of the importance of the time factor in social change.

The book is written with the brilliancy and clarity of style for which the author is famous. Apart from the central theory it formulates and defends, it contains a remarkable amount of original thinking on social and economic questions presented in a highly interesting manner.

Soviet Russia in the Second Decade. A Joint Survey by the Technical Staff of the First American Trade Union Delegation. Edited by Stuart Chase, Robert Dunn and Rexford Guy Tugwell. New York, The John Day Co., 1928. xiii + 374 pp.

A delegation of American trade unionists, accompanied by a group of technical advisers, visited Russia in the autumn of 1927 for a period of some six weeks. On its return to the United States, the delegation published a report containing a brief summary of its investigations. Some of the problems of present-day Russia are dealt with in greater detail by the technical advisers in the volume under review.

The subjects treated are: economic organisation in a socialist State ("Industry and the Gosplan", by Mr. Stuart Chase); Russian agriculture (Mr. R. G. Tugwell); the trade union movement (Messrs. P. H. Douglas and R. W. Dunn); labour legislation and social insurance, wages and the material condition of the industrial workers, the consumers' co-operative movement (Mr. P. H. Douglas); Soviet finance (Miss A. Comstack); education (Messrs. G. S. Counts and C. Washburne); the administration of justice (Mr. C. L. Israels); the nature of the Russian Government and the Communist Party (Mr. J. Davis); Russia's transportation system (Mr. J. H. H. Hopkins and Miss M. Alexander); and foreign concessions in Russia (Mr. A. Fisher). An introductory chapter, giving a review of Russia's evolution, is contributed by Mr. J. B. Brebner, who is also responsible for a chapter on the Poltava region.

In addition to Moscow and Leningrad, the technical advisers visited all the most important parts of Russia: the Donetz Basin, the Volga and Urals, the Ukraine, the Caucasus and the Crimea. They interviewed commissaries, politicians and a large number of officials.

The authors frankly admit that the time at their disposal was not sufficient to permit an exhaustive study of present-day Russia, and describe their reports as "a series of preliminary studies" which may help in giving an idea of conditions in that country. The reports do not contain a description of the authors' impressions or studies carried out on the spot, but are prepared from printed documents which, with few exceptions, are from official Soviet sources. Some of the studies are but a faithful reproduction of the data provided by these documents.

Stege, Wilhelm. *Die Wirkungsmöglichkeit der Internationalen Organisation der Arbeit.* Inaugural Dissertation zur Erlangung der philosophischen Doktorwürde vorgelegt der Philosophischen Fakultät der Friedrich Wilhelms-Universität zu Berlin. XII + 241 pp. (Typescript.)

Stekloff, G. M. *History of the First International.* Translated from the third Russian edition, with notes from the fourth edition, by Eden and Cedar PAUL. London, Martin Lawrence, 1928. XI + 463 pp.

This detailed history of the First International is in two parts. The first indicates the main lines of the movement which led to the institution of the International, and describes its activities and the results of congresses down to the end of 1872. The second part is almost exclusively devoted to the creation and development of the Anarchist International. The concluding chapters in this part trace the evolution which led to the creation of the Second International. Numerous biographical and chronological notes and a bibliography are included.

Suomen Tapaturmavakuutuslaitosten Liitto. Olycksfallsförsäkringsanstalternas i Finland Förbund. *Työväenvakuutus. Arbetareförsäkring.* Edited by F. BORG, K. A. PALOHEIMO, H. PAAVILAINEN and K. KALLIALA. No. 3. 1928. Helsingfors. 40 pp.

Brochure on workers' insurance published by the Federation of Accident Insurance Institutions of Finland.

Tavastähti, Elli. *Yksityinen Huoltotoiminta Suomessa. Luettelo Yksityisistä Huoltojärjestöistä ja -Laitoksista.* Helsingfors, 1928. 69 pp.

The author gives an account of private welfare work in Finland. The volume contains a list of private welfare organisations and institutions.

Trades Union Congress. *Industrial Conference Report.* London. 72 pp. 3d.

The Conferences that took place in 1928 between the General Council of the T.U.C. and Lord Melchett's group of employers aroused considerable public interest. The above pamphlet contains the Report of the General Council to Congress, the Joint Interim Report adopted by the Conference on 4 July 1928, and the Debate on these reports which took place at the Swansea Trades Union Congress, 6 September 1928, and which resulted in the adoption of the Reports by 3,075,000 votes against 566,000.

Trotsky, Léon. *Vers le capitalisme ou vers le socialisme ?* Bibliothèque de " La Lutte des Classes ", No. 1. Paris, 1928. XVII + 69 pp. 3.50 frs.

A French translation of articles which appeared in the *Pravda*, August-September 1925, dealing with the " verified figures relating to Russian national economy 1925-1926 ", compiled for the first time by the " Gosplan " (State Planning Committee) and forming the political, economic, financial and social programme of the Soviet Government for the following year. Mr. Trotsky sees in these data the evidence of the U.S.S.R.'s progress towards socialism.

It will be recalled that Mr. Trotsky has since openly placed himself at the head of the Opposition formed within the Communist Party, and that he signed the declaration of the Opposition presented to the last Congress of the Party in December 1927. The thesis and assertions of the Opposition tended to show that the present policy of the Party was diverting Russia from Socialism and reinforcing capitalist economy. Mr. Trotsky's articles are preceded by an introduction contributed by Mr. Pierre NAVILLE.

Tschanz, F. *Richtlinien Neuzeitlicher Bankorganisation mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Schweiz. Vortrag gehalten am internationalen Kurs für Rationelles Wirtschaften in Basel im Oktober 1928.* Schweizer Schriften für Rationelles Wirtschaften, No. 9. Zürich, Hofer and Co. 24 pp.

This pamphlet, one of a series of studies published by the Swiss Association for Rationalisation, contains the text of a lecture on new methods in banking organisation delivered by Mr. Tschanz, an expert on the subject. His study is based chiefly on recent developments observed in Switzerland.

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Cotsworth, Moses B. *Calendar Evolution. Showing how the Length of the Year was Found, and Calendars Formed.* London, The International "Fixed Calendar" League. 8 pp. 1s.

—— *The International Need for Calendar Simplification.*

Dearle, N. B. *Dictionary of Official War-Time Organisations.* Economic and Social History of the World War. British Series. Publications of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Division of Economics and History. London, Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press; New Haven, Yale University Press, 1928. XVII + 322 pp.

Graziadei, Antonio. *Kapital und Kolonien.* Berlin, R. L. Prager; Milan, L. Trevisini, 1928. 98 pp.

Guiboud-Ribaud, P. *Où va la Russie?* Préface de H. BARBUSSE. Paris, Éditions sociales internationales, 1928. 167 pp.

Le paysan russe. Paris, Bureau d'Éditions, 1928. 96 pp. 2.50 frs.

Internationale communiste. *Thèses et Résolutions du VIe Congrès de l'I.C.* Paris, Bureau d'Éditions. 230 pp. 6 frs.

Martner, Daniel. *El desenvolvimiento científico de la Universidad de Chile.* Discurso del Rector de la Universidad de Chile en 19 de Noviembre de 1928. Con ocasión del 80º aniversario de la creación de este establecimiento. Publicado en los *Anales de la Universidad de Chile.* Santiago de Chile, 1928. 18 pp.

Oxford Preservation Trust. *Second Annual Report 1927-1928.* Oxford, University Press. 27 pp.

Parti communiste français. *Ve Congrès national tenu à Lille 20-26 juin 1926. Compte rendu sténographique.* Paris, Bureau d'Éditions, de Diffusion et de Publicité, 1927. 709 pp. 15 frs.

The Labour Who's Who, 1927. A Biographical Directory to the National and Local Leaders in the Labour and Co-operative Movement. London, The Labour Publishing Co. XVI + 245 pp.

Trachtenberg, J. *Das Land das blutet. Bilder aus dem heutigen Russland.* Aus dem Russischen übersetzt von Dr. F. GOLDBERG und G. KANDLER. Berlin-Charlottenburg, Jakow Trachtenberg Verlag, 1928. 98 pp.

Weninger, Dr. Laszlo Vince. *Gázhaború és Nemzetközi Jog.* A Magyar Külügyi Társaság Kiadványai Nemzetközi Jogi Osztály. (La guerre des gaz et le droit international public. Série : publication de la Société hongroise pour la politique extérieure. Section : droit international.) Budapest, Antal Turcsány, 1928. 76 pp.

Zur Psychologie der werktätigen Jugend. Vorträge der vom Sächsischen Ministerium für Volksbildung in Gemeinschaft mit dem Sächsischen Berufsschulverein in der Zeit vom 17.-21. Mai 1926 in Leipzig veranstalteten Berufsschulpädagogischen Woche. Im Auftrage des Arbeitsausschusses herausgegeben von A. KLIMPEL und Dr. F. RIEMANN. Leipzig, Broedel und Co., 1926. 98 pp.

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The International Labour Office is not responsible for opinions expressed in signed articles.

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The Question of Forced Labour before the International Labour Conference

by

Jean GOUDAL
Diplomatic Division, International Labour Office

The Governing Body of the International Labour Office has placed the question of forced labour on the agenda of the International Labour Conference for 1929. According to the double-discussion procedure adopted in 1926 the Conference this year will make a preliminary study of the question and, if it so decides, will draw up a questionnaire which will give the Governments of the States Members of the Organisation the opportunity of expressing their views on the provisions to be included in such Draft Conventions and Recommendations as the Conference may be invited to adopt at the 1930 Session.

Readers of the Review *may therefore be interested in the following brief outline of the general problems connected with forced labour.*

On the basis of the information contained in the report[1] *recently published by the Office on this subject, Mr. Goudal examines successively how the International Labour Organisation has come to deal with this group of questions, the existing legal position in various colonial territories, and, finally, the essential principles which seem likely to form an acceptable basis for an agreement between the States Members.*

THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION AND FORCED LABOUR

AT ITS Twelfth Session the Conference will for the first time have before it a question concerning "native labour". The International Labour Organisation has, however, from the very beginning of its activities given its attention to labour conditions

[1] INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Forced Labour; Report and Draft Questionnaire.* International Labour Conference, Twelfth Session, Item III on the Agenda. Geneva, 1929. 320 pp.

in colonial territories. It will in fact be remembered that Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles makes it compulsory for States Members to apply the Conventions they have ratified "to their colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing", except where, owing to local conditions, the Convention is inapplicable, or subject to such modifications as may be necessary.

The Conventions so far adopted by the Conference, however, have in general had reference to conditions of labour in the more highly developed countries, and experience has shown that they have been little adapted to the conditions in countries in which industry is still in a primitive stage. At the same time the situation in the latter countries raises a whole group of other and much more urgent problems which have been solved long ago by the Western nations. These problems are the abolition of slavery, forced labour, indentured labour, and, generally speaking, the transition from dependent forms of the organisation of labour to free wage labour or independent production.

These considerations did not escape the notice of the Temporary Slavery Commission set up by the League of Nations ; when this Commission had to deal with the part of its programme relating to the question of forced labour, it refrained from making a detailed study, pointing out that the Peace Treaties had instituted the International Labour Organisation, which was particularly qualified to deal with this question. Furthermore, co-operation had already been established between the League of Nations and the International Labour Office through representation of the Office on the Permanent Mandates Commission as well as on the Temporary Slavery Commission. The Assembly of the League of Nations itself, in adopting a Slavery Convention in 1926, at the same time adopted a resolution drawing the attention of the International Labour Office to the importance of the work undertaken by it "with a view to studying the best means of preventing forced or compulsory labour from developing into conditions analogous to slavery". In December 1926 the Council of the League of Nations in its turn adopted a resolution to the same effect. The preoccupations of the Assembly and the Council in this matter are easily explained ; the work of the Temporary Slavery Commission had in fact made it sufficiently clear that the abolition of slavery and the slave trade would not necessarily put an end to the existence of all kinds of servile

labour conditions. The Assembly and the Council, aware that the Office had already undertaken studies in this sphere, wished, by adopting the resolutions just mentioned, to mark the importance of these studies and to show their conviction that there was a close connection between the possible consequences of forced labour and that class of abuses which the Slavery Convention sought to combat.

The Office, recognising the complex and delicate nature of the problems raised by native labour, requested the Governing Body to grant it the necessary powers to set up a Committee of Experts whose members should possess first-hand knowledge of labour conditions in colonial territories. This Committee was created in May 1926 and the Office first consulted it by correspondence on a fundamental question of method, namely, what exact aspects of native labour were most suited to be dealt with by international action. The opinion of the Experts was that the questions of forced labour and contract labour could certainly be dealt with in this way at a relatively early date. The Office therefore prepared a study setting out the law and practice with regard to forced labour in those territories where it exists, the international decisions already taken on the subject, the opinions expressed on the value and effects of this kind of labour and the necessity for regulating it, and, finally, the principles that already underlie, or might suitably underlie, the use of forced labour. This study was submitted to the Committee of Experts, which examined it during its first two sessions ; having been approved with certain amendments by the Committee, it was transmitted to the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, which decided to place the question of forced labour on the Agenda of the 1929 Session of the Conference, thus complying with the wish unanimously expressed by the Experts. In accordance with the Standing Orders of the Conference, the Office has drawn up, on the basis of the study approved by the Experts, a preliminary report on the law and practice with regard to forced labour in various countries, accompanied by a draft questionnaire.

Present Position of the Law and Practice with regard to Forced Labour in Various Colonial Territories

In approaching the problem of forced labour, the International Labour Office was faced first of all by the difficulty arising from the variety of conceptions and definitions of the term "forced labour" accepted by the various colonial Powers. It decided to adopt the widest and most comprehensive acceptation and to examine all the methods of employment of natives, of any kind whatever, which involve any form of compulsion. The various systems of legislation relating to forced labour apply to three chief types of work : firstly, work for *general* public purposes, that is to say, carried out in the interests of the territory considered as a whole ; secondly, work for *local* public purposes, that is to say, for the benefit of the local community (village, group of villages, tribe, etc.) ; and thirdly, work for *private* employers. The Office report has adopted this classification in analysing the legal texts regulating forced labour. A brief comparison of the various systems of legislation will suffice to show the common characteristics that seem suitable for inclusion in international regulations.

The position in the *Belgian Colonial Empire* is as follows. The legislation of the Independent State of the Congo authorised the carrying out of public works by the second section of the annual levy of the militia. This Decree remained in force in the Belgian Congo after the annexation ; it was, however, amended by a Decree of 16 February 1910 which reduced the maximum period of service from five to three years. The Belgian Government has rarely made use of its prerogative under these Decrees : it seems to have availed itself of their provisions only in the case of workers already recruited before the annexation for construction work on the Upper Congo Railway. In two recent cases, in January 1920 and August 1926, the Belgian Government has refused to approve Decrees authorising a levy of natives for the construction of Congo railways. In practice, therefore, the Government would seem to have abandoned the compulsory recruitment of labourers for public works. If workers are engaged, they are subject to the provisions of the Decree of 16 March 1922, being engaged in the same way as workers employed

by private persons, i.e. under contracts freely entered into at a specified rate of pay and governed by the Decree.

Compulsory porterage is authorised for official journeys by the Decree of 26 December 1922 ; it has however been regulated by the Decree of 19 March 1925 in such a way as to avoid abuses. Forced labour is still authorised in the Belgian possessions for the compulsory cultivation of certain economic crops, and in emergencies.

With regard to forced labour for local public purposes, natives may be requisitioned for the maintenance of local roads, the construction of bridges, the maintenance of rest houses, and the construction and maintenance of Government buildings ; all work of this type is paid for by the State. Certain other work may be carried out without remuneration, in particular the cleaning of villages, the construction and maintenance of cemeteries, etc. The maximum period for which this labour may be requisitioned is sixty days per year.

Forced labour for private employers is forbidden in the Belgian Congo by section 2 of the Belgian Colonial Charter, which states that "no person shall be forced to work on behalf of or for the benefit of individuals or associations". The *direct* intervention of officials in the recruitment of labour was forbidden in March 1926.

The situation regarding forced labour in the *British Empire* differs considerably in the chief groups of colonies. The laws concerning forced labour for general public purposes in the British East African Dependencies (Kenya, Nyasaland, Tanganyika Territory, Uganda, and Zanzibar) have numerous points of resemblance : forced labour is authorised for public works, porterage, and emergencies ; the total amount of such labour is limited to sixty days per year; exemptions are granted to natives already engaged in other employment; in all these territories wages must be paid for forced labour. In the group of territories forming British West Africa (Nigeria, the Gold Coast, Sierra Leone, and Gambia) the legislation is less definite; there appear to be no provisions defining all cases in which forced labour may be called out for general public purposes. Labour is requisitioned chiefly for the construction and maintenance of roads, and payment for such work is made only in certain cases. There seems to be no system of forced labour in the Union of South

Africa and in South-West Africa. In Ceylon the liability to labour on the roads is in practice commuted, and even this commutation tax is tending to disappear. Labour is requisitioned for work on the roads in Cyprus and in British India. The Organic Law of the Mandated Territory of Iraq prohibits in general all unpaid forced labour except in emergencies; this is also so in Palestine. In British territories in Australasia and Oceania there seems to be little legislation regulating forced labour for general public purposes.

With regard to forced labour for local public purposes the legislation in the British East African Dependencies authorises this form of forced labour in general for the maintenance and construction of watercourses and other works for the benefit of the community; such work is not remunerated and in general its duration is limited to twenty-four days per year; the local authorities are responsible for it. In British West Africa the native authorities may requisition labour for the construction and maintenance of roads and tracks as well as for certain other work of a local character. Similar provisions exist in the other British possessions.

In none of them are there any legal provisions authorising forced labour by direct compulsion for the benefit of private employers. As Mr. Ormsby-Gore, Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies, has stated in his report on his visit to West Africa in 1926: "The British Government have again and again laid down that under no circumstances will they undertake to provide compulsory labour for private profit in any British Dependency." At the same time certain provisions concerning vagrancy in South-West Africa and Kenya have been criticised as implying a greater or less degree of compulsion upon natives to engage themselves to private employers.

French colonial legislation constitutes a somewhat complex system. In the majority of the colonies forced labour for public purposes is neither authorised nor regulated by laws or decrees; the right to levy it appears to be regarded as falling within the powers of Governors. In the case of public works necessitating employment for a long period a contract is usually made between the native and the Administration, but it appears, as is seen, for example, in the case of the French Cameroons and French Equatorial Africa, that compulsion is exercised by the Administra-

tion for the recruitment of these native workers. The development work at present being carried on in certain colonies occasionally makes it necessary to engage a huge number of workers; the chief instance of this is in connection with the construction of the Brazzaville-Ocean Railway. For more than five years several thousand natives have been working at this railway and the completion of the work is expected to take at least as long again. In the French Cameroons a considerable amount of compulsory labour has also had to be employed in recent years for the construction of the Central Railway. Large-scale public works are being carried out to an ever-increasing degree in French West Africa and in Madagascar; in both these colonies the Administration instituted towards the end of 1926 a system of levying labour which makes it possible to carry out certain public works by means of labourers levied from the second quota of the native militia. The period of military service in the labour contingents is fixed at three years. This new departure has met with a mixed reception.

Vast areas of the French colonies in Africa have still to be served by porters; this method of transport, which has cruelly decimated the African population, will obviously be reduced by the construction of new roads and railways. At present, however, porterage in Africa amounts to an annual figure of hundreds of thousands of man-days.

Forced labour for local public purposes exists in all the French colonies in the form of compulsory labour dues *(prestations)*. This labour is in principle restricted to the execution of work connected with local sanitation or the maintenance of local means of communication, tracks, and telegraph lines. A maximum number of days has been fixed by the legislation in each colony: this number varies from three days (in Algeria) to sixteen days (in Indo-China).

With regard to the third type of forced labour, French legislation does not generally permit Government recruiting of forced labour for private undertakings, plantations, development companies, etc. Its underlying principle is that while public welfare may necessitate the levying of forced labour from native populations, the French Government can in no circumstances undertake to obtain labour for the benefit of private employers. It seems therefore that the isolated cases in which forced labour for the benefit of private employers is met with must be regarded

as survivals or illegal exceptions. The least questionable of these exceptions would seem to be in the French Congo, where the Organic Decree of 28 March 1899 instituted a system of land tenure under which nearly half the territory was allocated, in the shape of thirty-year concessions, to 38 limited companies; some of these companies appear in practice to have extended the considerable privileges accorded to them to include the right to impose on the natives a system closely resembling forced labour. Although the State does not formally concede to these companies the right to force natives to work, natives are forced to harvest for the company a specified quantity of rubber, the price of which is fixed by the company itself. Press campaigns have been carried on insisting on a return to the ordinary lawful practice of free cultivation and trading in French Equatorial Africa, and the Government seems to share this point of view.

There is not much legislation concerning forced labour in the *Italian* possessions. In Eritrea Regulations permit forced labour for general public purposes subject to the authorisation of the Governor of the colony; in practice, however, this right seems to be rarely exercised. In Somaliland there are no legal provisions on this matter ; in virtue of custom, however, the authorities have in certain cases requisitioned labour for the maintenance and repair of caravan routes; this work has been paid for. Forced labour for general public purposes does not exist in practice in Tripoli or Cyrenaica.

Forced labour for local public purposes is permitted in Eritrea for the maintenance of local roads and certain other work; this form of labour is not paid and must be of short duration. In Somaliland the use of forced labour for local purposes is limited to the construction and repair of mosques; it does not exist in Tripoli or Cyrenaica.

Finally, in the Italian colonies no form of forced labour for private employers exists.

The legislation of the *Dutch East Indies* concerning forced labour is contained in the Act of 1925; section 46 provides that the Ordinances concerning labour dues shall be revised for every province once in every five years in order that such amendments in the general interest as may be possible may gradually be made in them. The revision of these Ordinances thus compels the

Government to review the question at regular intervals and prevents any relaxing of control. Two kinds of forced labour for general public purposes are met with. The first consists in requisitioning the necessary workers for the execution of important public works, on condition that the performance of the work is absolutely necessary in the general interest and that it is impossible to obtain sufficient voluntary labour; the labour thus requisitioned must be paid for. In practice this form of labour does not exist in Java or Madura, where voluntary labour can be obtained in sufficient quantities; it exists only in certain of the Outer Provinces. The second kind of forced labour for general public purposes is in the nature of a tax similar to the French labour dues ; this form of labour, which includes the great majority of the services demanded from the population of the Dutch East Indies, is not remunerated. It is commutable and has been entirely abolished in Java and Madura, as well as in certain of the Outer Provinces; it is used almost exclusively for the maintenance of roads. Forced labour for porterage may be requisitioned if there is not sufficient voluntary labour available. The maximum period for which all these services may be levied is fixed at thirty days per year.

The natives of the Dutch East Indies are also liable to a form of compulsory labour which is carried out exclusively in the interest of the native commune. The Dutch Government has as far as possible adopted the principle of native self-government for communes, and consequently no longer lays down in detail the regulations regarding this form of labour, which benefits only the villagers, and is largely required from them in virtue of immemorial native custom. The most important work of this type is the police service required for ensuring the safety of the villages at night; another class consists in the construction and maintenance of communal roads and bridges; the third consists in services rendered to chiefs, either domestic work or the cultivation of land. Commutation is possible for all communal services.

There is found in the Dutch East Indies a last form of forced labour which may be exacted in the interests of landowners: this obligation generally involves one day of work per week. Gradually, however, as the Government repurchases the estates on which such labour still exists and these disappear, the obligations in question become less and less heavy.

Portuguese legislation concerning native labour has recently been considerably altered. A Decree of 6 December 1928 has repealed the general Regulations of 14 October 1914, which previously constituted the most important legal text regulating native labour, and has approved a new Native Labour Code for the Portuguese colonies in Africa. The basis of the former Portuguese legislation was the principle of the "obligation to labour", according to which every able-bodied native in the Portuguese colonies was subject to the moral and legal obligation of providing for his maintenance by means of labour and thereby progressively improving his social condition. If a native did not work voluntarily he was called before the authorities, who tried to induce him to work by offering him work which was within his power to carry out. If he refused to accept this work he could be sent to an employer in need of servants; this form of compulsion was "compulsory labour". If, in spite of this first warning, the native continued to refuse the work offered him by an employer and remained idle, he became guilty of vagrancy and could be charged with this before the courts and punished. This second form of compulsion was "correctional labour".

The Decree of 6 December 1928 has created an entirely different system. Under section 294 of the Code issued by this Decree compulsory labour for private individuals or for companies is prohibited. There is apparently a relic of the former moral obligation to labour in section 3 of the new Decree, according to which the natives must fulfil "the moral duty incumbent on them to provide for their subsistence by means of labour". As, however, there is no legal sanction behind this obligation, it seems destined to remain purely moral. Compulsory labour for general public purposes is authorised exceptionally in urgent and special cases and only under certain strict conditions; the requisitioning of labour for public works is permitted only if it is impossible to obtain voluntary labour for the purpose. Compulsory labour for local public purposes is permitted only for the cleaning and maintenance of villages, tracks, wells, local roads, etc. A last form of compulsory labour which may be authorised consists in the cultivation of certain land belonging to the native reserves, but only on condition that the produce of this cultivation belongs to the natives themselves.

The Decree includes very definite provisions concerning remuneration for the authorised forms of compulsory labour;

compulsory labour for general public purposes will always be remunerated or some form of assistance will be provided by the State. Workers employed on public works must receive the same wages as voluntary workers; for work made necessary by emergencies (disasters, etc.) the natives must receive food, housing if the duration of the work demands it, and in every case a sum of money. With regard to village work, no remuneration in the strict sense of the term is prescribed for the natives who perform it, but the Administration must provide them with the necessary assistance in the form of materials, seeds, etc. which the natives could not procure for themselves. Section 298 of the Decree lays down the general principle that compulsory labour must never be employed without remuneration or if it involves sacrificing the interests of the native population. Natives are liable to compulsory labour only if they are between the ages of fourteen and sixty years, and the compulsion does not apply to persons who are sick, disabled, or already employed under a contract, or to chiefs; women are also exempt from carrying out public works or any work to be done outside the district in which they reside.

Principles underlying the Regulation of Forced Labour

A comparison must now be made between the principles regarding forced labour underlying the national systems of legislation briefly analysed above and the terms of existing international instruments relating to this question. These instruments consist in the texts of the Mandates and the Slavery Convention. They can be reduced to a small number of injunctions in summary terms. A short Article in the "B" and "C" Mandates prohibits in Mandated Territories "all forms of forced or compulsory labour, except for essential public works and services, and then only in return for adequate remuneration". The Temporary Slavery Commission suggested the introduction of a similar clause in any Slavery Convention which the Assembly might decide to adopt; this would have been equivalent to extending the Mandates system to all colonial territories. The Sixth Committee of the Assembly, however, and the Assembly itself, considering it "better to proceed a little distance with security than to try to go a great distance with insecurity", gave its preference to a text recognising the possibility of recourse to forced labour for public purposes, with transitional provisions

regulating forced labour for private employers. The requirement that all forced labour for public purposes should be remunerated was included only in a Resolution accompanying the Convention and not in the Convention itself.

It must therefore be concluded that in their present state practically all the colonial systems of legislation have already either gone farther than the general principles accepted in the international sphere or have given them more precision. In particular they have gone far beyond them on the question of forced labour for private employers, since this form of labour is explicitly forbidden in almost all the national systems of legislation. The only direct legal compulsion which appears still to exist in this sphere is found in the Dutch East Indies, where it is really a survival of a feudal institution and, as a matter of fact, is already disappearing. But the most conspicuous example of the great progress made by the national systems of legislation, as compared with the international minima at present accepted, is the detailed regulations they lay down for the forms of forced labour that are authorised. It would therefore seem that the time has come for attempting to draw up international agreements aiming, on the one hand, at securing the universal adoption of recent advances, in particular with regard to forced labour for private employers, and, on the other, at confirming and co-ordinating in a progressive spirit the regulations for other forms of forced labour. This task is simplified by the multiplicity of points of contact between the different systems of legislation, in spite of the differences between the colonial territories to which they apply.

The first point, therefore, on which it seems easy to obtain agreement between the Governments is the question of forced labour for private employers. With reference to forced labour for general public purposes also it seems that certain broad principles are generally accepted by the colonial Powers: authorisation of forced labour in cases of emergency, which are left outside the general plan of the regulations; efforts to abolish porterage whenever possible, and until this can be achieved strict regulation of forced porterage; admission of compulsory cultivation (on the lines of the suggestion already made by the Assembly) only as a measure of precaution against famine and on condition that the food so produced remains the property of the natives themselves. There remain the large-scale public works concern-

ing which it appears difficult at first sight to reach a definite agreement, since the development work in various colonial territories is at very different stages of progress. It is to be expected, however, that the Governments, being fully aware that this is the kind of forced labour that gives most scope for abuses, will not object to agreeing that it should be subject to strict regulation and that a maximum should be fixed for the duration of the forced labour for each individual, if the existence of situations which are closely analogous to slavery is to be prevented.

With regard to forced labour for local public purposes, the chief difficulty would seem to arise from the divergence of ideas in different countries on the question whether this class of work should be paid. Certain laws make a distinction between labour imposed by the native Administration and labour imposed directly by Government officials, payment being due only in the second case. Other laws consider that labour of this kind imposed on natives by the Administration is really a tax, and since it is not actually forced or compulsory labour, it therefore does not require remuneration. This question was raised before the Permanent Mandates Commission with reference to French Togoland and the French Cameroons, and the Commission came to the conclusion that labour dues as they exist in the French and Dutch colonies really constitute unremunerated forced labour.

The International Labour Office could not stop short at laying down very general bases for an agreement between the colonial Powers; it had to go a step farther and suggest detailed regulations for the various forms of forced labour, such as have already been more or less completely formulated in the various systems of colonial legislation. With this aim it has sketched out, with the assistance of the Committee of Experts, a sort of Code of forced labour, which forms chapter VII of the report submitted to the Conference, and whose main features may be outlined here.

The report first of all lays down a certain number of general criteria which should govern all recourse to forced labour of any kind. The first of these criteria is already formulated in the text of the Mandates: it is the *essential* character of the labour and service to be rendered. The second, which introduces the time factor, is the criterion of *urgency*. A third general condition which should be taken into account is the *impossibility of obtaining voluntary labour*. Finally, a fourth criterion may be stated as follows: "A work or service which will involve the use of

forced labour should only be undertaken after careful consideration whether it will not lay too heavy a burden on the present generation, having regard to the labour available and its capacity to undertake the work."

These four criteria, therefore, represent the general guarantees applicable to every case of compulsory labour. They immediately raise the question *what authority* shall decide whether the conditions so stated all exist, and whether the imposition may therefore be permitted. The last paragraph of Article 5 of the Slavery Convention supplies an answer: "In all cases the responsibility for any recourse to compulsory or forced labour shall rest with the competent central authorities of the territory concerned." The report proposes the adoption of this principle, which was certainly aimed at abolishing the evils that had so often accompanied abuses of power on the part of subordinate authorities or even private individuals.

The report then examines the three main categories of forced labour and proposes first a system of regulations for forced labour for general public purposes. It seems possible to except cases of emergency (*force majeure),* such as fire, flood, famine, etc., from the general plan of guarantees and regulations ; a restrictive definition of these cases should, however, be given. It is in connection with forced labour for important public works (construction and sometimes maintenance of railways, main roads, wharves, drainage and irrigation work) that the evils associated with forced labour are generally found to be most intense. Here, therefore, the strictest regulations are needed. They must in the first place define the persons liable to this kind of labour : women, children, old persons, and the medically unfit should not be subject to forced labour ; adult males who are taken for forced labour should be medically certified beforehand to be capable of supporting the labour to be imposed on them, and to be free from contagious disease : lastly, from any given community there should not be taken more than a certain proportion of the total native population, which proportion should be determined by the Administration after full and careful examination of all the circumstances which should be taken into account. In the second place, if the hygienic and medical protection of forced labourers is to be complete and effective, it must include a medical examination of each worker, repeated at stated intervals during the period of his employment.

the provision of the necessary dispensaries and hospitals, and an adequate medical staff. Further precautions will be necessary when workers have to be transferred to areas where changes in climate and food involve a real danger to their health ; in this case the change in diet should be introduced gradually and all possible measures should be adopted to mitigate the effect of the change in climate.

The report next suggests regulations for the conditions of labour, in the strict sense, of natives requisitioned for important public works. The most important point in this connection is the duration of the period of compulsion. The maximum period allowed varies considerably in the different legislations : in certain territories it is only from twelve to fifteen days; in others from six to nine months; in still others it is unlimited. The report proposes that the period should normally not exceed sixty days per year, and, in cases where labour is brought from a considerable distance, should not exceed six months. The normal working day might be fixed, exclusive of breaks for meals or for rest, at eight hours, and the working week at forty-eight hours. Piece work (i.e. the allocation of a daily task), which has frequently given excellent results, should be encouraged. The question of the remuneration of forced labour has been explicitly settled by the text of the Mandates and by a resolution of the Assembly : *this class of labour should always be remunerated ;* further, no deduction should be made from wages for special food, clothing, or accommodation supplied to the workers, and hours worked in excess of the normal working day or week should be remunerated at rates higher than the normal rates. Compensation for accidents and occupational diseases raises another important question. It is easy to imagine the moral and technical difficulties in the way of applying this principle among native workers. It seems, however, that the principle of compensation should be laid down in a general form ; the report proposes the following : "The Administration employing forced workers should hold itself responsible for their future subsistence in cases where, owing to accident or sickness arising out of circumstances of their employment, they are rendered incapable, or only partly capable, of maintaining themselves." It seems, finally, that, in order to be complete, a system of regulations for forced labour for important public works should deal with the period of the agricultural year during which forced labour should be exacted

(the period being chosen as far as possible outside that at which the presence of the men in their fields and plantations is necessary), the return of the workers to their homes, which should be at the expense of the Administration, and, finally, the control of the application of the protective regulations by some system of inspection.

The essential principle of regulations for porterage should be to reduce this work to a minimum, as it is regarded with peculiar detestation by the natives subject to it ; they should also include a series of provisions analogous to those set out above for important public works. The question of compulsory cultivation should be regulated in accordance with the suggestions of the Assembly referred to above.

The second main class of forced labour is labour for local public purposes. This form of forced labour, which does not usually involve prolonged absence of the worker from his home, is generally a less burden on the natives. But in certain cases it may nevertheless give rise to serious abuses, and it therefore seems desirable to regulate it.

The principal work exacted in practice may be grouped under three heads : (1) local sanitation; (2) communications; (3) miscellaneous public purposes. Work of the first class, which consists of minor services connected with cleanliness, sanitation, and the maintenance of paths and tracks in the immediate vicinity of the village, is among the normal obligations of the villagers, and should not therefore be subject to regulations applying to forced labour, though it should remain under the general control of the Administration ; the enforcement of such sanitary and other services naturally lies with the competent local authority. The question of the construction and maintenance of communications is more difficult to regulate, since practice in this matter varies largely. The general tendency of legislation seems to be that forced labour for local purposes should be permitted only for the maintenance and cleaning of local roads, but not for main roads and metalled roads. To these might be added the construction and maintenance of public buildings for local administrative purposes, including rest houses, or for facilitating the movement of officers when on duty and of stores belonging to the Administration. When it has been decided what classes of work may be exacted under this head, the regulations should include certain provisions analogous to those set out above for

important public works, in particular those dealing with the exclusive employment of able-bodied males ; the fixing of the maximum number of days which may be exacted ; the normal working day ; the responsibility of the Administration in case of accident or disease of forced workers : the period of the agricultural year when forced labour may be imposed ; and provisions relating to inspection.

There remains the third class of forced labour, namely, labour for the benefit of private employers. It has been seen that the laws are almost unanimous in prohibiting it. The report therefore proposes the insertion of the following explicit statement of principle : "No Administration or other authority should by its legislation or other measures authorise forced labour for the benefit of private individuals, companies or other entities than the general community. Where such forced labour exists, every effort should be made to bring it to an end as soon as possible." A second principle seems to follow directly from this. It concerns the attitude of the Administration towards the recruiting of workers for private employers and the measures that may be taken to encourage such recruiting. The colonial Powers seem agreed that the Administration should not permit its officials to put constraint upon the populations under their charge to work for private employers. The application of this principle does not seem to be incompatible with the duty of these officials to *encourage* the natives to undertake *some kind of work*. It is more difficult to propose regulations for the various forms of indirect but still legal compulsion that have been devised in certain territories to replace measures of direct legal compulsion that have been abolished. In view, however, of the very serious abuses to which these indirect forms are liable, it appears desirable to arrive at some international agreement, if only in the form of a Recommendation, expressing disapproval of these methods and in particular of those that consist in : (1) imposing excessive taxation on the native populations with the express intention of forcing them into private employment ; (2) reducing the means at the disposal of the workers for providing independently for their own needs, by unjust restrictions on the ownership, occupation, or use of land ; (3) extending unjustly the generally accepted definition of the term "vagrant" ; (4) issuing such regulations as "pass" laws, which place employed persons in a position of advantage as compared with others.

Such are the principles on which the Office and the Committee of Experts consider that international agreement might be reached. In approving them the Experts did not mean to assert that they are all equally suitable for inclusion in such international Convention as might later be adopted with reference to forced labour ; and in fact some of these principles, which are merely the expression of general aims rather than the definition of measures capable of immediate application, would be quite out of harmony with the somewhat rigid and formal character of a Draft Convention. At the same time, the Conference cannot fail to note their importance and value, and may desire to support them in the form of Recommendations. Taken as a whole, the regulations proposed represent a putting into definite shape and, as it were, a codifying of rules that are already applied by certain national systems of legislation, or at least whose reasonableness is recognised. They must therefore be considered not so much as a definitive realisation but rather as a step towards a more complete system of regulation, the object of which would be to substitute, for the principle of compulsion, the economically more advantageous and more civilised principle of voluntary labour.

Accident Prevention and Factory Inspection

by

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The first item on the agenda of the Twelfth Session of the International Labour Conference, to be held in June 1929, is the prevention of industrial accidents. In accordance with the double-discussion procedure, the subject will this year be before the Conference for the second time. The Eleventh Session, basing its discussions on a detailed report on the law and practice in the matter[1]*, agreed upon the text of a questionnaire that the Governments were to be requested to answer; this year the Conference will have before it, for discussion and decision, a report on the answers of the Governments, and the proposed texts of two Recommendations and one Draft Convention. The present article does not deal with the whole of this material, as a general survey of the problem was published in the* Review *last year*[2]*; the author's purpose is to discuss the powers which, according to one of the proposed Recommendations, should be given to the factory inspectorate, as the official body responsible for supervising the enforcement of the safety laws and regulations, and to support the solution adopted in the proposed text for certain problems which are the subject of some difference of opinion.*

IT HAS become customary in recent years to divide industrial accidents, according to their causes, into those that can be completely prevented by technical methods, and those that can only be avoided by the worker's prudence. A third group of accidents, comprising those against which technical methods are still unavailing, and against which also the workman cannot protect himself by his behaviour, is numerically much smaller

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[1] International Labour Office: *The Prevention of Industrial Accidents. Report and Draft Questionnaire.* International Labour Conference, Eleventh Session, Item II on the Agenda. Geneva, 1928. 318 pp.

[2] "The Prevention of Accidents in Industrial Undertakings", by Dr. F. Ritzmann, in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVII, No. 3, March 1928, pp. 332-348.

than the other two, although it often includes especially serious cases. Experience shows that, roughly speaking, about one-fourth of all industrial accidents belong to the first group, and about three-fourths to the second. It should be emphasised that the distinction drawn here is not between machinery accidents and others. On the relation between these two classes of accidents, a relation that many writers confuse with the one under consideration, fairly exact but widely different statistics are available for separate industries. Not all machinery accidents can be prevented by safety devices ; but on the other hand many non-machinery accidents can be prevented by fireproof buildings, and by the proper construction, upkeep, and lighting of floors, passages, stairs, scaffolding, ladders, etc.

The distinction just drawn is of importance from the point of view of accident prevention, because the State, with its weapons of safety regulations and factory inspection, can in the main attack only the small fraction of accidents that are preventible by technical methods. Recognition of this fact led to the development of the extensive Safety First Movement, which aims at educating the worker to safe methods of behaviour. The movement calls upon employers and their representatives, and foremen in particular, to undertake the practical part of this education ; and an indispensable condition of success is the removal of all technical defects by the employer; for this is the only way that the worker can be made aware of the employer's willingness to carry out his share of the common task.

In view of the noteworthy success of this movement in large numbers of factories a certain scepticism as to the value of compulsory measures on the part of the State in the domain of accident prevention became widespread. In fact, during the Eleventh Session of the International Labour Conference, the view was put forward that the Conference, while fully acknowledging the results hitherto achieved by factory inspection, should confine itself to strong support of the Safety First Movement. This point of view, however, was not general ; the great majority of the Conference voted in favour of a questionnaire which would give the Governments an opportunity of expressing their views on the measures of State compulsion for the prevention of accidents that appear to them suitable for inclusion in an international Recommendation. The sense of the replies to the questionnaire was positive. The proposed Recommendation concerning the prevention of industrial accidents, to be discussed

by the Twelfth Session of the Conference, accordingly contains definite suggestions for increasing the efficacy of factory inspection in preventing accidents, in addition to recommending various ways in which the State may encourage voluntary accident prevention work. These suggestions extend and complete the Recommendation on factory inspection adopted by the Fifth Session of the Conference in 1923. The purpose of the following pages is to explain them a little more fully, and show the reasons for them.

As regards the statutory basis for State intervention in accident prevention work, it follows from the very nature of the subject, and it is confirmed by the experience of all industrial countries, that it is impossible to draw up precise regulations to fit every individual case that may arise in practice, and capable of only one interpretation. It is necessary to be satisfied with more or less general rules, which require a different interpretation for every individual case. This is so now, and owing to the constant changes in methods of production it will always be so, in spite of the fact that endeavours are perpetually being made to regulate as many matters as possible by Orders based on the general legislation and so limit the number of interpretations for individual cases. In these circumstances extraordinary importance attaches to the question who is to be competent to give the interpretation, or, in other words, who is to be empowered to declare, with the force of law, what must be done in order to comply with the general statutory regulations. This question has been answered in different ways in different industrial countries.

In most Anglo-Saxon and Latin countries the decision lies with the ordinary courts. We shall consider one example to see the effect of this procedure in a particular case.

The British Factory and Workshop Act lays down in section 10 (1) *(c)* that "all dangerous parts of the machinery and every part of the mill gearing must either be securely fenced, or be in such position or of such construction as to be equally safe to every person employed or working in the factory as it would be if it were securely fenced". If a factory inspector is of opinion that some part of the machinery of a factory does not satisfy this regulation and if he fails to obtain a satisfactory response from the employer by voluntary means, then he must prosecute him for breach of the law; in accordance with the general legal principle of *in dubio pro reo,* the employer will be

given the benefit of any doubt there may be, and will not be convicted unless the offence is proved to the hilt. It was for this reason—to quote an instance—that the British factory inspectors could not use this regulation to insist upon the introduction of the cylindrical cutter-block for overhand planing machines, a device which has been on the market for over twenty years. The substitution of a cylindrical block for a square block was not, in fact, a matter of fencing, but involved altering the construction of the machine. In order to meet the case it was found necessary to issue a special Order, which appeared in 1922. The annual report of the British Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for 1927 mentions a similar case. The factory inspectors hold the view—which would doubtless be endorsed by experts from all over the world—that the cutters of metal-milling machines are "dangerous parts of machinery" within the meaning of the Factory Act, and it had always been their practice to require guards to be provided for these machines; but this procedure was stopped by the decision of a higher court on an appeal, indicating that the Factory Act did not apply to this case[1]. The Home Office has therefore drafted a special Code of regulations for horizontal milling machines, which will enable the necessary protective measures to be enforced. This Code will also contain regulations for the provision of efficient starting and stopping devices, good lighting, and non-slippery floors—all matters that have been recognised as necessary to ensure the safe working of milling machines, but that could not be enforced under the existing legislation. Nevertheless, it is not very likely that the courts will not in future have to decide what constitutes, in any particular case, efficient starting and stopping devices, good lighting, and non-slippery floors.

This state of affairs, which, as already pointed out, is met with in most Anglo-Saxon and Latin countries, seems to the present writer unsatisfactory, not only from the standpoint of accident prevention, which it greatly hampers, but also because it means that purely objective differences of opinion between employers and factory inspectors as to the necessity of specific technical measures can only be settled by a prosecution. The employer must appear in court as defendant, and the factory inspector as public prosecutor or as witness. This situation is

[1] *Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the Year 1927*, pp. 30-31.

not very pleasant for either party, and must lead to strained relations, little calculated to further the cause of accident prevention. This procedure is no doubt in accordance with the principle of the separation of powers as between the legislature, the executive, and the judiciary. But it is not difficult to find cases in which, without abandoning the principle, some deviation from it might be considered both right and expedient. For instance, there is the practice in the State of Pennsylvania, which goes to the length of issuing general regulations to deal with a single case, after the settlement of which they serve no further purpose. In the State of New York the procedure is rather different. The general regulations include very precise and exacting requirements, irrespective of whether all factories, in particular the older ones, are technically able to comply with them or not; but the executive authorities are empowered to grant exceptions, which they may make dependent on the fulfilment of certain conditions. The authorities can thus do what is necessary and possible in each individual case without any fear of being overruled by the Courts; for if an employer proved obstinate they would fall back on the bare wording of the law, the non-observance of which would, in any circumstances, be punished by the Courts.

Ordinarily the considerations that led these, the two greatest industrial States of the Union, to adopt this somewhat artificial procedure would seem to be of universal validity. Technical measures for the protection of the workers can be applied in a really progressive spirit only if they are based on individual treatment of each separate case. So long as employers are human beings, there will always be a certain number who turn a deaf ear to good advice and friendly warning, and must therefore be compelled by the State to apply the general safety regulations in force to their own factories. The means to this end is the power to issue orders having the force of law in individual cases.

It is primarily the States of Central Europe, from Holland and Scandinavia down to Italy, but also many States of Eastern Europe, that have incorporated in their protective labour legislation this principle of issuing orders in individual cases. The power to make orders is, as a rule, delegated to the factory inspectors, but occasionally also to the district police authorities acting under their advice. It is clear that the situation here is quite different from that described above. If the employer and the factory inspector are unable to agree whether a given technical

measure for the prevention of accidents is supported by the general statutory regulations, the inspector gives a provisional decision by ordering the measure to be carried out. The employer may submit to this decision; he must then carry out the measure in question, and will be liable to a penalty for non-observance of an order having the force of law if he fails to do so. The court before which the case is brought has no concern with the substance of the infringed order. But this does not at all mean that the factory inspector is, in certain circumstances, in a position arbitrarily to issue unnecessary or unsuitable orders: for the employer naturally has the right of appealing to a higher authority than the factory inspector. Further, as is shown beyond all doubt by the factory inspection reports of a large number of countries, he has every guarantee that his appeal will be carefully and competently examined; while on the other hand, if the higher authority endorses the factory inspector's order, there is also every guarantee that this is both justifiable and practicable.

In many countries, however, in which the mechanism of State authorities is giving ground before autonomous institutions and the principle of self-help, there is a certain impatience with such official intervention even when no actual fault can be found with it. It is therefore well worth while to consider forms of procedure for dealing with technical safety measures that are free from this objection. An interesting example is the Indian solution of the problem, embodied in the Indian Factories Act of 1911 as amended to 1 June 1926. Under this Act the appellate authority may, and if so requested by the appellant must, hear the appeal with the aid of two assessors, one of them appointed by the authority itself, and the other by a body legally representing the interest of the industry concerned. Here, then, the administrative decision takes the form of the award of an arbitration court. It will be useful to look a little more closely into this conception, which took practical shape in the British Factory Act much earlier and is still found there in one particular case. Section 14 of the Act lays down that in case of a difference of opinion between the owner of a factory or workshop and the County Council as to the provisions of means of escape in case of fire, the difference shall, on the application of either party, be referred to arbitration, and the award shall be binding on both parties. There are also detailed rules for the composition of the arbitration board. Each party appoints one member, and

the two members choose a chairman, who, however, only intervenes if they cannot reach agreement by themselves.

An arrangement of this kind preserves intact the principle of the separation of powers ; the only peculiarity is that an expert arbitration board takes the place of the ordinary court. But the employer and the factory inspector appear before the board on an equal footing, and it is solely the greater technical knowledge of one or other that decides whose view shall ultimately prevail. It must not be overlooked that this procedure, when applied to accident prevention, makes great demands on the technical qualifications of the factory inspectors. Ultimately, however, that would be a reason for recommending it, as in fact none but the best abilities are good enough to deal with technical safety measures.

The power to give orders in individual cases is the means which, according to the proposed Recommendation to be submitted to the Conference, should be at the disposal of factory inspectors for the removal of defects observed during visits of inspection. But the saying so often quoted in connection with the prevention of accidents, that "prevention is better than cure", also holds for factory inspectors.

Now the moment when plans are being prepared for the construction or the alteration of a factory is the point at which a large number of industrial accident risks can be eliminated in advance by following expert advice, in most cases almost without expense. In many countries the factory inspectors accordingly see all plans for the construction or alteration of industrial buildings in their district. They examine these plans from the standpoint of the safety regulations, often in detailed discussion with the builders, and indicate the requirements to be taken into account in the construction. It is obvious, and it is confirmed by the factory inspection reports of Germany, the Netherlands, and other countries, that in this way a steady and considerable improvement in the standard of industrial safety is achieved, so far as this depends upon the nature of the building and its fixtures. It was therefore natural to recommend, as is done in the proposed Recommendation, that this procedure should be generally adopted. A number of Governments, it is true, expressed the opinion, in their answers to this part of the questionnaire, that factory inspectors should give advice only to employers who ask for it. In the present writer's opinion this is not enough. What is here in question is an accident preven-

tion measure that is so effective, and at the same time so extremely reasonable, that its application should not be made dependent on the often inadequate judgment of the intending builder.

The reader may perhaps wonder why this article is called "Accident Prevention and Factory Inspection", and also why it has so far dealt only with factory inspection. The reason is that in the great majority of cases the factory inspectorate is the organ used by the State to carrry out its tasks in the domain of accident prevention. But there are exceptions: in Switzerland, for example, it is the National Accident Insurance Office, and in Italy, the National Association for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents (an employer's association), that is the official authority for this purpose. It is needless to say that, in these cases, the powers recommended for factory inspectors would be handed over to these bodies.

It is an encouraging fact that the opinions expressed by the Eleventh Session of the Conference, and the answers of the Governments to the questionnaire on the prevention of accidents, have made it possible to submit these proposals on the powers of factory inspectors to the Twelfth Session; and it is to be hoped that the final decisions of the Conference will help factory inspectorates throughout the world to obtain the best weapons for their difficult and important campaign against industrial accidents.

General Principles of an International Convention on the Conditions and Contracts of Employment of Foreign Workers: III[1]

by

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The Contract of Employment of Recruited Workers

The recruiting discussed in the foregoing pages is a particular form of emigration for another country. But the immediate reason why the worker emigrates is the contract of employment offered him when he is recruited. Although in theory it is perhaps not impossible to separate the questions of recruiting from those of the contract offered to the recruited worker, it seems for practical reasons more useful to consider these two questions together.

Hence all the international bodies that have examined recruiting questions—the International Labour Conference, the Geneva International Emigration Commission, the Rome Emigration and Immigration Conference—have adopted this view, which is also followed in the bilateral conventions between States. Similarly, the Vienna Chamber of Workers and the Austrian Trade Union Commission have also recommended simultaneous examination.

The resolution of the Rome Conference already referred to is particularly interesting in this connection, for it clearly shows that it is to the common interest of countries of emigration and of immigration to keep these problems linked.

It should also be borne in mind that the question of the contracts offered to workers recruited abroad is not the same

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[1] For Parts I and II of this article, cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIX, No. 3, March 1929, and No. 4, April.

as that of the contracts under which foreign workers engaged within the country of immigration are employed. When the latter are engaged they are already under the *imperium* of a Government which is free to fix the conditions affecting public policy of the contracts of employment concluded in its territory; but when the contract is concluded as a condition of the departure of the worker, it forms part of the operation of recruiting. The only contract of employment to be considered here, therefore, is that concluded when workers are recruited in another country.

The Form of the Contract

Should the contract of employment of the recruited worker be subject to certain conditions of form, or may it, like the contracts of employment within a country, be concluded orally or in writing, expressly or tacitly, as the parties prefer?

Here it should be observed that, in point of fact, recruiting abroad is as a rule not authorised now unless the countries concerned have previously agreed on the text of the proposed contract of employment, and this implies a written contract.

This appears to have been the aim even at the time of the Washington International Labour Conference in 1919, when the Recommendation adopted stated that the recruiting of workers abroad should be permitted only "by mutual agreement" between the countries concerned. For the points to be covered by such an agreement must almost inevitably include the conditions of employment of the recruited workers and the establishment of equality of treatment, incidentally a subject dealt with in another Recommendation of the same Conference.

Previous agreement on the contract appears also to have been demanded by the Geneva International Emigration Commission of 1921, when it expressed the view that "wages should not be less than those paid in the country of immigration", and advocated certain regulations on wages and the deductions to be made from them.

The resolutions of the Rome Conference are even more precise. They demand that, for collective recruiting, the authorisation to recruit shall be granted only if the general conditions of the contract of employment are indicated in the

contract to be concluded between the employer and the workers, and state that these conditions should in principle be drawn up by agreement between the authorities of the countries of emigration and of immigration (III, 7 and 8).

All the bilateral treaties that contain clauses on recruiting also specify carefully the way in which the model contract of employment is to be applied, and give detailed explanations on this subject. Examples are the Franco-Polish, Franco-Czechoslovak, Germano-Polish, and Austro-Polish treaties, which imply the existence of a written contract.

The Austrian workers' organisations, on their side, lay special stress on the demand for a standard contract of employment. This system of a standard or model contract is very generally adopted for collective recruiting. In this case the agreed standard provisions are often reproduced in full in the actual contract, which is printed in several languages, with a wealth of detail sufficient to make up a large booklet (cf. the Franco-Czechoslovak, Franco-Polish, Germano-Polish, Austro-Czechoslovak, Austro-Polish, and Germano-Czechoslovak treaties).

In countries of emigration whose inhabitants do not belong to a white race, the Governments are also particularly careful to see that workers do not emigrate collectively without very detailed and thoroughly discussed contracts of employment, which shall ensure equitable conditions of employment for their citizens resident abroad, and must even be explained to the emigrants by impartial officials. Copies of this standard contract must be given to each person concerned, accompanied by the special regulations for each recruiting operation.

The Austrian proposal is definitely in favour of such a system and states that the standard contract should be concluded as an individual contract.

Most laws and treaties dealing with contract questions state expressly that the standard or individual contracts concluded must be accompanied by *a translation into the languages of the worker and of his employer,* so as to prevent all risk of misunderstanding.

It is obvious that the agreement as to the standard contract may be tacit as well as formal, and that if a Government raises no objection to a text submitted to it or proposed to its workers it thereby expresses its acquiescence.

The Place where the Contract is Concluded

We have already seen that the Emigration Commission of 1921 expressed the view that contracts concluded in connection with recruiting should be fully enforceable in the country where the worker is to be employed. This provision is generally accepted in European labour treaties.

Certain countries of emigration (such as Italy and India) consider it of special importance that the contract should be concluded at the time of recruiting, when the authorities are in a position to protect their nationals against employers who may prove too powerful when they are on their own soil. It must not however be forgotten that many countries regard these contracts with little favour, since they are made before the worker concerned has been able to acquire a sufficient knowledge of the conditions of work in the country to which he is going, and they have introduced legislation prohibiting more or less severely work done under a contract concluded abroad before the work is actually taken up.

Thus in the United States the Act of 26 February 1885 on contract labour declares utterly void and of no effect all contracts of employment by which an immigrant engages to perform labour or service that are concluded before the immigrant left for the United States ; moreover, by the Immigration Act of 1917, contract labourers are not allowed to immigrate to the United States, but exceptions are allowed in certain cases, such as skilled workers if labour of like kind cannot be found unemployed in the United States. Similar provisions are in force in various other countries, and it must be admitted that when contracts of employment are concluded *abroad* without the protection of the Government, they are as a rule unsatisfactory both to the countries of emigration (India, for instance) and to the countries of immigration (the United States, for instance), and both to national and to foreign workers.

To satisfy the adversaries of "contract labour", must it therefore be decided that the contract of employment shall not be concluded before the worker has arrived at his place of work?

It seems difficult to satisfy both sides, and in view of these differences of opinion it seems that the validity of contracts concluded abroad can be recognised in principle, when the

Governments are not definitely opposed to this, and subject to certain reservations intended to prevent abuses.

Nearly all the countries that have so far concluded labour treaties have in fact recognised the validity of contracts concluded abroad, and many of them have even made these compulsory. At the Rome Emigration and Immigration Conference in 1924, a resolution was adopted *nem. con.*, stating explicitly that contracts drawn up in the country of emigration between the employer and the workers should have full force in the country of immigration, provided that they are in conformity with the laws of the country of emigration and that they are not contrary to public policy or to the laws and regulations of the country of immigration.

With a reservation of this kind, there can hardly be any serious objection to the insertion in the International Convention of a clause concerning the validity of contracts concluded abroad. This is the attitude adopted, notably, in the Emigration and Labour Treaty of 8 October 1921 between Italy and Brazil, which, in spite of the distance separating these two countries, declares that individual or collective contracts of employment, concluded in Italy by Italian workers and to be carried out in Brazil, are fully enforceable in the latter country provided they are not contrary to public policy. The Brazilian Government even assumes a special obligation to have them carried out.

Due respect must however be explicitly maintained for any laws opposing the conclusion of these contracts abroad or imposing strict regulations in this matter. And it is to be noted that even in the United States, the country where the opposition to foreign contracts is strongest, the prohibition is not absolute, and there are cases in which contract labour is allowed.

The Drawing up of the Contract

It has been shown that both Governments and employers' and workers' organisations are as a rule in favour of the adoption of standard or model contracts of employment for recruited workers. But although there is agreement on the principle, there are many differences of opinion as to the form to be given to these contracts and the conditions in which they are to be drawn up.

The official international conferences seem to prefer arrangements concluded after consultation of the employers and workers in the industries concerned in the two countries. This was the view approved by the International Labour Conference in 1919 and the International Emigration Commission in 1921 for all cases of recruiting abroad. The Rome Emigration and Immigration Conference, in 1924, after declaring that the conditions of recruiting may be established after consulting the employers and workers of the industries concerned in the two countries (III, 7 (3)), added that the general conditions of the contracts of employment should in principle be drawn up by agreement between the authorities of the two countries.

Turning to the existing bilateral treaties, it will be found that appended to the text of the Germano-Polish Treaty of 1927 is a contract of employment for foreign agricultural workers, which was drawn up by the German Professional Committee for Agriculture and Forestry *(Fachausschuss für Land- und Forstwirtschaft)* and then approved by the Polish Government. The Committee in question, which is attached to the German Federal Office for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance, is a joint body representing employers and workers, but all the members are German. Exceptions to the standard contract may be allowed by individual agreement, but only if the change is in the workers' interests.

The Franco-Czechoslovak and Franco-Polish Labour Treaties provide for the drawing up of model contracts by agreement between the competent administrative departments of France and Czechoslovakia or Poland, as the case may be. A copy of each contract of employment must be submitted for the approval of the two administrative departments, which must satisfy themselves that the conditions specified in the treaty are respected. It may be added that each of these treaties places the whole organisation of recruiting under the supervision of a mixed Franco-Czechoslovak or Franco-Polish Commission.

Under the Germano-Czechoslovak Treaty of 1924 the contract to be concluded is drawn up by the authorities concerned and is appended to the recruiting arrangement, of which it forms an integral part. Similarly, under the Austro-Czechoslovak Treaty of 1925 and the Austro-Polish Treaty of 1921, the model contract of employment is appended to the agreement, and is the work of the two administrative departments that have concluded the agreement.

Thus the drafting of the standard contract may be subject to two kinds of supervision, that of the trade associations, and that of the public administrative departments, and these forms of supervision are often exercised by mixed committees.

It seems difficult for an International Labour Convention to enter into much detail on all these points. It will no doubt be sufficient to state in it that the standard contracts should be duly examined and checked by the parties concerned, leaving the particular countries to settle questions of detail by bilateral arrangements that allow for their special conditions and needs. It must not be forgotten that these conditions and needs vary widely in different countries and that many principles that are generally accepted in Europe are not so in Asia or Africa ; it follows that an excess of detail on technical points would necessarily prevent ratifications. It would, for instance, be difficult to give a definition in international law of the " equal " representation of employers and workers that would meet the economic conditions of all countries.

The Conditions of Employment of the Foreign Worker

The Draft Convention will naturally state in general terms the conditions of employment of the foreign worker whose recruiting has been authorised. What provisions of this kind can be inserted in it ?

The Views of International Conferences

The resolutions of the international conferences as a rule contain very few recommendations on this point. The International Emigration Commission of 1921, for instance, merely recommended that the wages should not be less than those paid in the country of immigration, and condemned clauses involving deductions from wages that are contrary to the legislation of that country.

The Rome Conference of 1924 was rather more explicit. It demanded that the employer shall guarantee that wages and pay in general will not be lower than the normal wages and pay current in the district and the industry, and further, that there is no strike or lock-out in the undertaking ; it also recommended that the authorities of the country of emigration shall not require

higher wages to be paid to their nationals than to workers belonging to the country of immigration. It added that a contract concluded abroad should have full force, except as regards clauses contrary to public policy and the laws and regulations of the country of immigration, and should not give rise to any coercive measures in that country.

The Havana Conference tried to hold the balance between the demands of workers and employers by deciding (IV, 2) that :

> Equality of treatment between foreign workers lawfully resident in the territory of a country and national workers should be strictly observed in the administration of laws for the protection of labour and social insurance and in connection with the conditions of labour, and the principle of equality of wages should not be violated by workers' asking for a supplementary remuneration intended to cover the travelling expenses of which the repayment was not foreseen in the contracts or conventions in force.

The principle of equality of treatment was also recognised by the Sixth Pan-American Conference, held at Havana in 1928, which demanded " the equality of civil rights between nationals and aliens ".

The special conferences held separately by countries of emigration and of immigration have treated the questions of equality of treatment from somewhat divergent points of view. While the Conference of countries of emigration held in Rome in 1921 was definitely in favour of equality of treatment between national and foreign workers, that of countries of immigration held in Paris in 1923 made reservations on this subject, declaring that the questions raised by the full application of the principle of equality of treatment and the consequent advantages enjoyed by foreigners should be carefully examined, in particular as regards the various forms of social insurance, when these foreigners refuse to assume the corresponding obligations by declining to be naturalised.

The draft submitted by the Austrian workers contains proposals for including wage provisions in the contracts : wages should be equal to those of national workers and should include travelling expenses in both directions. The contracts should further provide for the medical and technical examination of the workers and the setting up of arbitration courts.

The Provisions of Bilateral Treaties

An examination of the bilateral labour and emigration treaties shows that they contain in the first place a large number of clauses on the general conditions of residence of immigrant workers, and general regulations or protective measures, which are outside the scope of the individual contract of employment. These clauses are either police regulations which are binding on all persons resident in the country, or they concern only the Governments and have therefore nothing to do with the contract of employment as such.

Thus the bilateral treaties deal with equality of treatment as regards charitable assistance, insurance, compensation for accidents, mutual aid, relief in the form of work, unemployment relief, the right of combination and freedom of association, co-operation, the acquisition of rural and urban property, admission to schools, legal protection, participation in committees for social purposes, hygiene and safety, rates and taxes, conditions of work, eligibility and the right to vote for industrial courts and commissions, and many other matters that have little to do with the contract as such.

On all these points it may be necessary to legislate, and it may even be useful to conclude special bilateral or multilateral treaties or to insert them in a Labour Code for foreigners ; but a Convention on the recruiting and contracts of foreign workers would lose its usefulness and efficacy if it were to be burdened by clauses of this kind.

In addition, the bilateral labour and emigration treaties contain a large number of clauses directly relating to the contract of employment of recruited workers. Those concerning the general conditions of employment, and above all wages, are in this respect of essential importance. The principle of equality of treatment between foreigners and nationals is fairly widely recognised. Analogous provisions deal with hours of work, rest periods, night work, and Sunday work. On all these points the bilateral treaties of all countries are agreed ; it has become an almost universal practice in individual treaties to recognise equality of treatment within these limits.

But apart from this general declaration, the treaties contain many special provisions on individual contracts of employment

and the conditions of recruiting. Here a distinction must be made between European and American labour treaties on the one hand, and those in other parts of the world on the other.

The former contain several particulars regarding the period of validity of the contract, the age and sex of the recruited workers, the measures to be taken with respect to families separated by emigration, the place of work and the nature of the work to be done, compensation for accidents, the effects of sickness and invalidity on the contract, the conditions of transport on the outward journey and of repatriation at the end of the employment, the conditions of renewal of the contract, the conditions of entry into the country, the effect of industrial depression, deductions from wages, the methods of payment of wages, overtime, output bonuses, conditions of moral character, the right to belong to trade unions and associations, the conditions and effects of the cancellation of the treaties, etc.

On all these points the treaties contain declarations in general terms, it being left to the administrative departments and commissions or to the trade associations concerned to define them in greater detail in the individual contracts.

As a rule more detailed and far-reaching provisions are to be found in the many agreements by which non-European Governments authorise the engagement of their workers for employment abroad. This is to be expected, for a European worker who goes to work in another European country has some idea of the general conditions of his employment. He belongs to the same race as the national workers, can mix easily with them, and has no difficulty in adopting their ordinary conditions of life. The position is quite different for non-European workers, who are often less well educated, and before their departure and during their whole stay abroad have need of a contract stipulating very precisely the conditions of their employment and of their repatriation.

The object of these provisions is often less to establish formal equality, which is difficult to realise between workers with very different customs, than to guarantee equitable treatment to workers of other races, with due regard for their state of health, morals, and civilisation.

In mandated territories and colonies the regulations are often even stricter, and are of particular interest owing to the fact that they have been established in agreement with the international organisations. They comprise a whole system of prohibitions

and rules which have gradually superseded the old and now obsolete conditions of employment (indentured labour) [1].

Among particularly detailed provisions applicable to non-European workers are those relating to the period of the engagement, the conditions of the journey, maintenance and repatriation, health, board and lodging, the effects of the separation of families and the conditions of payment of compensation to those left behind, the assistance to be given by the employer in the absence of insurance against sickness, accident, or invalidity, the conditions of departure and return of girls and married women, the security to be given by the recruiter, and the compensation due in case of cancellation or non-execution of the contract, the liability of the recruiter, the employer, and possibly their Government, advances out of wages and the method of repayment, the prohibition of corporal punishment and imprisonment, the function of protective organisations, etc.

In a general way these arrangements aim at ensuring that the emigrants shall have a tolerable minimum of subsistence and an effective protection against employers who might easily abuse their local authority over workers of another race, whom they often consider as inferiors.

The Equality of Treatment Clause

It will be seen that all the systems adopted or recommended rest ultimately on one essential clause : that of equality of treatment between national and foreign workers. It must be clearly understood that it is equality and not identity of treatment that is here in question ; for it is sometimes a difference of procedure that will best assure real equality for the foreign worker.

This principle being generally accepted, it will be necessary to formulate it in a Draft Convention applicable to all countries. The question is not without certain difficulties, for, though equality of treatment between national and foreign workers may be a simple and attractive formula, clear-cut and definite when examined at a distance, some of its clarity of outline disappears when it is considered more closely.

[1] For a detailed summary of these numerous and varied laws and appended contracts, cf. the volumes published by the International Labour Office entitled *Migration Laws and Treaties* (Studies and Reports, Series O, No. 3), to which reference has already been made. Cf. also *Forced Labour : Report and Draft Questionnaire* ; International Labour Conference, Twelfth Session, Item III on the Agenda. Geneva, 1929.

In the first place, a point that is often forgotten, equality of treatment should not and cannot exist in all matters. There is in particular the whole field of personal rights, where the treatment of the foreigner often can and should be different from that of the national. Disparities of this kind are innumerable ; we may mention, for instance, the provisions concerning guardianship, majority, minority, and legal capacity in general. It is obviously out of the question that a minor should merely have to cross the frontier to become able to conclude contracts and escape from the paternal authority.

Which are the labour questions, therefore, for which equality should be affirmed ? In this respect, it should first be recalled that so far as concerns police regulations and provisions relating to public policy and morals, such an affirmation is useless, for the laws in question apply *ipso facto* to all persons resident in the country. This is true of protective legislation properly so called, such as laws on the minimum age of employment, hours of work, and conditions of health and safety. The contract cannot include any clause extending the scope of these laws or excepting therefrom. It is useless, for instance, for a convention to prohibit distraint upon wages when the national law does not authorise it. This is self-evident.

The agreement between employer and employed, between recruiter and recruited, must therefore stipulate equality of treatment only for cases in which it can take effect; for instance, for individual rates of wages, hours of work, day or night work, and many other matters, so far as these provisions are left by the law to the free discretion of the parties.

It might also be thought possible for the Convention to organise the application of the system of social insurance to which the foreign worker will be subject ; but here there are so many special and difficult questions of a national or technical character that it seems preferable to reserve these points for one or more special Conventions similar to those already concluded by the International Labour Conference. As a matter of fact, these questions relate, properly speaking, neither to recruiting nor to the contract of employment.

The Draft Convention ought, therefore, to contain a provision clearly affirming the right of foreign workers to equitable treatment and genuine equality in the conditions of employment and remuneration. The details of application would be left to bilateral arrangements, which will no doubt become more

numerous in consequence of the adoption of this general Convention.

In this way the application of these measures can be adapted at frequent intervals to the rapid changes that social and industrial developments entail in the conditions of employment of workers recruited abroad. Even now, various Governments have given up the system of long-term recruiting treaties, and adjust their arrangements year by year to the changes that have taken place. While these changes of detail are being made, the Convention itself, which merely lays down general principles, may remain unaltered with a fixity that would be disastrous if it were applied to details, and would soon turn to stone a piece of mechanism that must essentially be flexible if it is to be of use.

Other Clauses to be included in the Draft Convention

Nearly all the international conferences that have dealt with this question have recognised in principle that it is necessary that normal recruiting should be interrupted if a strike or lockout breaks out in the undertakings concerned. This point was discussed above in connection with recruiting itself, and the conclusion was reached that the Draft Convention might usefully have a clause providing in such cases for the interruption of official recruiting operations. A second affirmation of this principle in the contract itself would obviously be superfluous.

For the rest, we have already seen what a multitude of clauses are contained in the existing bilateral labour treaties and model contracts. It may be asked whether it is possible to follow this example in a multilateral Draft Convention. On mature reflection and after well weighing the arguments on both sides, the present writer does not think such a method either necessary or practicable. There is also the difficulty of choosing between so many proposals. Some particular provision, useful and even indispensable in one country, would be useless and perhaps pernicious in other countries, where it would meet with embittered resistance, the nature of which the foreigner would not even understand. Furthermore, contracts of employment and recruiting are undergoing such rapid evolution that it might be dangerous to lay down now in a Labour Convention certain formulae whose transitory nature would soon be apparent. Finally, if the general Convention is to have any chance of being adopted in present conditions, it must be brief, limited to essential

points, and must merely indicate general principles, leaving the necessary details of application to special bilateral arrangements or other Conventions. It would therefore seem sufficient to insert in the draft a general provision stating that model or standard contracts should stipulate equitable conditions of employment and equality of treatment in respect of wages and hours of work, all special questions being referred to administrative agreements and the individual contracts.

Particulars of these details of application and of the special conditions appertaining to each recruiting operation will moreover be given in the standard contracts ; reference to these will show in each case whether the proposed conditions of employment may be considered "equitable" in view of the circumstances, and whether they really ensure equality of treatment.

But although it seems difficult for the Convention itself to formulate very detailed regulations on this subject, the question nevertheless remains open, and there is obviously nothing to prevent the contemplated Draft Convention from containing certain special provisions on which agreement could be reached. This is the reason for the above enumeration of the principal questions forming the subject of Government demands, the provisions of labour treaties, and the resulting individual contracts.

The Function of Standard Contracts

In the preceding pages reference has frequently been made to standard or model contracts of employment, which are intended to fix in detail the rights and obligations of the contracting parties. It is these standard contracts that, after negotiation between the Governments concerned, will contain all the particular clauses considered necessary by the latter in connection with recruiting. It is therefore important to know what is meant by the "standard contract", for this term often gives rise to misunderstanding.

The provisions of the Convention concerning the standard contract may be conceived in two essentially different forms.

In the first place, they may constitute a mere framework on which all the clauses of the contract will be arranged according to a definite plan, while the Convention itself will contain no specific obligations. To follow the practice of many former

Austrian laws, an idea that appears at first to have attracted the authors of the Austrian proposal, the model might be conceived as a "skeleton contract" *(Rahmenvertrag)*. In this case, the Convention would indicate the various points on which the standard contract would have to furnish details and which it would have to follow article by article. The provisions of the standard contract would thus be at once imperative and optional : imperative because of the obligation to regulate the points indicated ; optional as to the nature of the provisions. This system has the advantage of drawing the attention of the parties to the various points enumerated in the Convention. It promotes agreement by neither rejecting *a priori* nor even recommending any special system. But the extreme freedom thus left to the parties considerably reduces and even stultifies the effect to be expected of a Convention on the standard contract, by the very fact that no attempt is made to include in it any fundamental provisions.

The result is that in practice this system is not widely used. The last proposal submitted by the Vienna Chamber of Workers and Employees appears to have given up so loose a system and asks that at least certain provisions should be compulsorily inserted in the standard contract.

This brings us to the second system : the obligation to include in the standard contract itself certain compulsory provisions which the parties cannot repudiate. This is in fact the usual interpretation given to the formulation of the standard contract.

But this obligation in turn may be carried out in many ways. It is possible, in the first place, to have a text with a fairly vague minimum programme, the same for all times, all conditions, and all countries, which would merely formulate in general terms certain principles of universal application, opposition to which is hardly conceivable. Understood in this way, the model contract, simple and formulated without great precision, might be appended to the International Convention itself, and perhaps adopted *ne varietur* by the International Labour Conference. But it is clear that so general a text would be only a formula. And since the Labour Convention itself may quite well include among its articles the essential principles it wishes to have recognised, the practical value of a supplementary formula of this kind is open to question.

Two other methods appear to offer more effective results.

The first, which is employed in many existing treaties, consists in drawing up one or more standard contracts, either together with the bilateral labour treaty or when it is carried into effect, nearly always with a provision for periodical renewal; these contracts contain the usual clauses which are to be applied in all individual contracts for certain industries, agriculture or mining, for instance, or even for all the workers of the country. They may be very comprehensive (that for agriculture between Austria and Czechoslovakia consists of over a hundred columns of small print), and they remain in force until replaced by new texts. This system appears to be the most convenient for the competent administrative authorities, which automatically apply the formula to all contracts; the parties, for their part, have full leisure to study the texts before concluding a contract. Such a method ensures a certain uniformity and stability, the effects of which are much appreciated by the persons concerned. It appears particularly appropriate for the relations between distant countries with different languages and systems of legislation (cf. the agreement between Brazil (Sao Paulo) and Poland concerning agricultural workers).

Another and more flexible system, perhaps more in harmony with the essence of the individual contract of employment, consists in leaving it to the parties to determine for each contract the actual conditions of employment and to refer to the general clauses of the accepted standard contracts only when they so desire, the essential provisions or exceptions being dealt with in the written contract. This system has the definite advantage of being much more adaptable to circumstances, although it has certain defects which make it more onerous to apply in practice.

With this method, the "contract" is the predominating idea, whereas with the preceding method it is the "standard". Between the two systems a large number of intermediate methods can also be conceived.

It would seem difficult for the general Labour Convention under consideration here to enter into the details of these various systems, each of which has its advantages, or to try to impose any one of them throughout the world in spite of differences in administration and customs. It therefore seems preferable to leave the detailed drafting of the standard contracts to the decision of the persons directly concerned, who will adopt what they consider most suitable to their country, their industry, and their time.

But whatever the system finally adopted by two countries, it seems possible to state in the general Convention that the standard contract shall be subject to the same conditions as the individual contract, that it must be the subject of discussion between the parties before coming into force, that a copy is to be given to each contracting party, and that this copy is to be drawn up in a language understood by the person concerned.

A provision of this kind could hardly raise serious objections, for it is to be found, in more or less identical terms, in all the laws in force and in all the treaties concluded, both in Europe and in other continents ; and nearly all the resolutions of the official conferences demand it.

As regards the particular provisions to be inserted in the standard contract, in addition to the general principles formulated above, they will be drawn up by the Governments concerned after the necessary consultations.

In order to ensure a certain uniformity in the texts of the various contracts, however, the Conference which decides upon the text of the Draft Convention might conceivably also adopt a Recommendation to the Governments specifying the conditions of employment of foreigners that at the present time the Governments of civilised countries consider equitable and likely to ensure good relations between classes and between nations.

Conclusion

An attempt has been made here to give an impartial analysis of the large quantity of post-war documentation on the regulation and organisation of the migration of wage-earners which has expanded so greatly in recent years.

The old system of individual migration, undertaken primarily with a view to oversea settlement, has in fact been very largely superseded by that of the collective recruiting of workers for neighbouring countries.

The new phenomenon called for new regulations. Hence many countries have enacted laws for the protection of national interests and concluded bilateral treaties organising and regulating the particular relations between two States. But it had soon to be recognised that neither of these two forms of regulation could cover the whole of a very complex and essentially international phenomenon.

In their wish to achieve a more rational organisation of the recruiting and migration of labour, the Governments have already held several international meetings : at Geneva, notably in 1921, at Rome in 1924, at Havana in 1928. Recommendations, so far somewhat theoretical, have been adopted by the International Labour Conference. Congresses of employers and workers, too, have more than once examined the question. Thus useful work has been done to prepare the ground for the compilation of a Convention on the conditions of employment of workers recruited in foreign countries.

At the same time it must be realised that there are considerable differences between the contents of a national law, or even a bilateral treaty, and the essential provisions of a world-wide Convention. While the former may be content to contemplate the conditions and interests of one or of two countries, the Labour Convention must take account of the general interests and the infinite variety of conditions throughout the world, of the interests of countries of emigration and of immigration, of agriculture and industry, of workers and employers, and of the widely differing conditions of life, education, and employment of workers in all parts of the world. It follows, therefore, that while formulating universal measures, capable of bearing fruit in practice, it must leave out anything applying especially to any one region, country, group of workers, or race.

Now up to the present attempts have but rarely been made to distinguish between what is properly dealt with in a national law, a bilateral treaty, and a world-wide Convention ; this differentiation, however, is an indispensable preliminary to the drafting of a general scheme of regulations that can be adopted by the Governments in the form of an International Labour Convention, and that may subsequently have a serious chance of obtaining a sufficient number of ratifications.

It is to prepare the way for the drafting of a Convention of this kind that the present study has been undertaken, based, wherever possible, on the wishes already expressed by the Governments. It lays no great claim to originality. But although its ideas are those of others, it throws some light on certain rather difficult social and political problems, and it makes a first attempt to co-ordinate the various scattered suggestions in a single proposal.

In order to test the practicability of this proposal, a sincere appeal is made to the good will and competent knowledge of

experts in the different countries and in different quarters, in the hope that they will collaborate in this attempt by stating what, in their opinion, are the indispensable conditions for carrying out a work of international social legislation on which depends the betterment of the condition of the workers in so many countries, and which has already been demanded in principle by a number of Governments.

Workers' Agricultural Programmes in Austria, England, and Germany

by

Dr. Fritz Baade

In the latter half of the nineteenth century, Socialist economic theory, applying to agriculture the doctrine of concentration, deduced from it that the small farm was doomed, that an inevitable concentration into large agricultural exploitations would entail the usual economic consequences, and so forth. Force of circumstances has gradually changed the workers' point of view, and modern Socialist theory on agricultural problems has recently found expression in three labour programmes, now Germany). The author of the present article shows the high degree of conformity between the three programmes, which are in wide agreement on fundamental principles. Special stress is laid on the demand that not only agricultural production, but also the distribution and marketing of agricultural products, should be an organised process in an organised world—a demand which is given as an indication of how far Socialist theory has travelled since the days of the Communist Manifesto.

The Growth of Ideas

THE Socialist and Labour Parties in three European countries have in recent years formulated their attitude to agricultural problems in a definite programme. This was done in Austria at the Vienna Party Congress in November 1925, in England at the Margate Party Conference in October 1926, and in Germany at the Kiel Party Congress in May 1927. These three agricultural programmes were in essentials drawn up independently. Each is peculiarly adapted to the economic and political conditions of the country in which it originated, and each in many details shows the special influence of the growing workers' movement in that country. Nevertheless the three programmes have a great deal in common, especially when they come to state their fundamental attitude to agricultural questions. It is therefore well worth while to consider them as a unity. They give a general idea of the present attitude of the European Labour

movement and of European Socialism to the problem of agriculture.

This attitude is the outcome of a long evolution along lines which have not by any means been parallel in the different countries. Nor has that evolution taken a straight course—knowledge has been reached mostly by very tortuous routes. The detailed history of ideas on this subject, as they were evolved by the Socialist and Labour movements in the various European countries, is beyond the scope of the present article. But a clear idea of the main lines, at least, of this history will be useful; only in the light of such a history of ideas can the true significance of present-day attitudes be grasped.

It is to be remarked that the workers' movements of the three countries—Austria, England, and Germany—where agricultural programmes have recently been published, have derived their basic ideas on economic policy from a common source: namely, from that period in the middle of the last century during which European Socialism advanced "from Utopia to science". These years saw the epoch-making writings of Marx and Engels; during them the young international Socialist movement provided itself with a common programme in the 1848 Communist Manifesto.

The Socialist attitude to agricultural questions ran parallel to Marxian views on economics: it was based on a conception of the pre-destined inevitable decline of the small-scale enterprise and the irresistible development of large-scale concerns. Admittedly the writings of Marx himself, and particularly his later works, offer many proofs that he himself was fully conscious of the essential difference between industry and agriculture, and that closer study, for instance of conditions in Russia, was bringing this home to him more and more. But the international Marxism of the middle of last century developed ideas on agricultural problems which were a very unreflecting and literal adaptation of the laws of industrial development. True, the wording of the Communist Manifesto had already laid special stress on the idea that the small peasant would be driven from his land, not because of the Socialist movement, but simply by the growth of capitalism itself. But the acceptance, as an inevitable necessity, of the thesis that agriculture must follow in the footsteps of industry barred the way to any chance of an active agricultural policy, and quite specially made impossible any policy of protection of peasant interests or encouragement of peasant production. For if the peasants were a class doomed to

disappear before the growth of capitalism, then any measures taken for their protection were merely an unscrupulous and factious prolongation of their death agony.

These ideas were more than once expressed at the Congresses of the International Workers' Association, founded in 1864 in London. One of the clearest statements on agriculture is to be found in the resolution of the Brussels Congress of 1868, where it was argued:

> In view of the fact that the requirements of production and the application of the laws of scientific cultivation to agriculture involve large-scale working, the introduction of machinery, and the co-operation of larger numbers of workers, and that the general tendency of modern economic development in agriculture is towards large-scale organisation . . . this Congress is of the opinion that the economic development of modern society will make it a social necessity to change land into common social property and to hand over the land, in the same way as mines and railways, from the State to agricultural workers' co-operative societies under similar guarantees for the community and the individual as will exist in the case of mines and railways.

It was assumed that the armies of workers required for agriculture would be recruited not only from former land workers, but also from former small peasants, who would willingly cast aside the fetters of ownership in favour of co-operative methods.

Such an attitude to agricultural problems as is found in this programme obviously was not going to find any echo among the masses of the rural population. Least of all was it likely to be acceptable to the only half proletarised class of small peasants and small tenant farmers, whose class interests demanded not that they should be freed from ownership, but on the contrary that they should have improved opportunities of ownership, each on his own land, better methods of production, better marketing conditions, rent protection, and good credit organisation.

The formulation by the workers' movement of hopelessly academic abstractions which ignored alike the basic laws of agricultural production and the class interests of the working agricultural population is principally to be explained by the political and economic aims of that period. The period from the middle of last century to the outbreak of the great war was completely taken up for the Labour movement, in England and Germany especially, with the task of organising the industrial working class along political and trade union lines. German Social Democracy, at any rate, acquired from that process such

a strong and irresistible impulse that all the organising forces of the movement were fully occupied by it, and the special difficulties and problems of winning the political support of the rural population scarcely came within the mental field of vision.

But even in the economic sphere the industrial workers' movement took little account of home agriculture. It was just during this period that the European populations profited by an enormous expansion of their available food supplies. This expansion arose, not from national agricultural production, but from the rapid development of agriculture abroad. Against the surplus products of that foreign agriculture the surplus products of European manufacture began to be exchanged on a world basis, and the rise in real wages from 1850 to 1900 among European industrial workers, particularly in England and Germany, was to a great extent the result of this international exchange of goods. There appeared to be no limits to the amount of fresh land that could be taken over for settlement, and to the increase in oversea agricultural output that could thus be stimulated; no limits therefore to the encouragement that could be given to manufactures in Europe, or to the opportunities of employment that could be created on behalf of the European industrial proletariat. It followed, in pure economic theory, that there should also be no limits to the rise in real wages and social standards of European workers. The struggle of the industrial working class for an improved economic and social position appeared therefore to be mainly a struggle for power: a social reward, the extent of which was apparently incalculable, was to be distributed, and the manner of that distribution had to be settled. It is true that the Socialists were not confined to fighting an unjust distribution of the social output as between capital and labour; they were also faced by an economic mismanagement which lowered the amount of that output, by a capitalist anarchy which led to confusion in the development of productive forces, and was thus bound to plunge industry into recurring periods of depression and the industrial reserve forces of the proletariat into misery and unemployment. This criticism, however, was directed mainly against the casual nature of capitalist expansion: the critics were wholly unconcerned as to the permanent basis of the ascending movement. They assumed unlimited possibilities of continuing to exchange industrial products for raw materials and foodstuffs from other countries. Not once did it occur to them to ascribe to their own agriculture in Europe any special

rôle as a basis for the economic life of their continent; not once did they contemplate the possibility that European agriculture might provide the European workers with a basis for economic progress.

The first breach in this stagnation of interest was made from the political side. French Socialism had never definitely accepted the destined decline of the peasant class and the destined disappearance of the smallholding. The French Socialist movement had been based from the outset on the support of great numbers of hard-working small peasants and tenant farmers as well as on that of the town workers. Rackrented and lacking credit, these peasants were in every respect to be counted among the proletariat. An active policy of peasant protection and even of the maintenance and consolidation of small peasant holdings was adopted as part of the French Socialist agricultural programme of 1894[1], as the following passage shows:

> In the industrial sphere the means of production have already attained to such a degree of capitalist centralisation that they can only be handed back to the real producer under a system of collectivism or socialisation. This is not the case at present in agricultural and land problems, at least in France, the means of production, namely, the land, being in many cases still in the possession of the producer himself as his personal property. . . . Socialism must therefore do nothing to hasten this decline (of the peasant system), since it is not its task to separate labour from ownership; it must, on the contrary, strive to unite in the hands of one person these two factors of production, the separation of which has reduced the workers to the state of a proletariat living in servitude and abject poverty.

This policy of active protection of the peasant system and of land workers led French Socialists even at that time to adopt a special and characteristic attitude towards the problem of price protection for agricultural products. In the general agricultural depression of the seventies, eighties, and nineties of last century, during the unprecedented fall in prices brought about by the rapid development of oversea agricultural production, causing widespread distress among farmers, the Labour movements in England and Germany were entirely in favour of free trade. French Socialism did not agree with the tariff protection demands

[1] As further reference is not made in the present article to the agricultural programmes of French workers, attention may here be drawn to the latest statement on agricultural problems by the General Confederation of Labour in December 1927. This statement is about equally divided into demands on behalf of wage-paid workers and demands on behalf of small cultivators. Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XXV, No. 5, 30 Jan. 1928, pp. 173-174.

of the agrarian parties; protection, in their opinion, involved an unnecessary burden on the consumer without providing sufficient assistance for the agriculturist. They demanded, in a proposal brought forward by Jaurès in the Chamber in 1894, a grain monopoly. This demand for a grain monopoly shows French Socialism anticipating by some thirty years a view which Austrian, English, and German Social Democracy has not reached until much later, under the stimulus of an entirely different economic situation and after having gained a deeper insight into international economic relations and the interests of the industrial workers in production policy.

Towards the end of the century Socialist agricultural policy in Germany became noticeably more cognisant of real situations. In the South German States, with their population of small peasants, there was, just as in France, a close blending of the industrial and rural proletariats. Repeated demands that Social Democracy should act for this section of the working population just as for industrial workers, and should draw up an agrarian programme really suited to the essential needs of the land worker, came to be put forward. The views and ideas of politicians and propagandists were reinforced by the conclusions of science. Statistics showed clearly that the assumption of a process of concentration in agriculture, similar to that in industry, was entirely false; that peasant ownership, and particularly the peasant family holding, was far from disappearing; that, on the contrary, a decline of large-scale undertakings and large peasant holdings, and an increase of small and medium-sized peasant holdings could be observed. The writings of Eduard David gave a particularly strong impulse to the process of realising what were the essential differences between agricultural and industrial production and what were the real movements in agriculture and in land tenure. However, these ideas did not get the victory over the older conception until the war. An agricultural programme aiming at active protection of the peasants was rejected by a large majority at the Party Congress in Breslau, and the official Party position continued to be governed by the ideas of the Erfurt programme, which dealt with agricultural problems on the theory of a destined decay of small-scale farming and the complete impossibility of any form of peasant protection.

Meanwhile, Party practice tended to move more and more in the opposite direction. This was particularly the case where Socialists had to take a definite stand on existing problems con-

nected with peasant agriculture, as, for example, in the Parliaments of the South German States. Demands for a thorough revision of Socialist agricultural principles received fresh force when it was realised that the political and trade union organisation of the industrial workers alone was not sufficient to lead to the attainment of political power, or could do so only very slowly; it appeared that the victory of the Labour movement would be materially hastened if, besides the masses of industrial workers, part at least of the rural proletariat and of the workers on the land, including the small peasants and tenant farmers, could be gained for the cause. The first period of agrarian Socialism, during which a purely theoretical and dogmatic attitude was taken up to land problems, and interest was mainly limited to attempts to fit agriculture somehow or other into the scheme of a future Socialist State, was followed by a second period during which agricultural problems came to be considered more and more from the political point of view. The question was asked how the Labour movement on its way to political power could add auxiliary troops drawn from the rural workers to its army of supporters among the industrial proletariat.

The moment came when wide opportunities appeared to be opening up for carrying this political attitude on agricultural questions into action. As a result of the revolutions in Germany and Austria, the Social Democrats had become the ruling party in both countries and had gained a controlling influence in administration and legislation. But European agrarian Socialism had by then already advanced to a definitely new stage. Shortage of food supplies during and after the war and, to a still greater degree, the depression in European industry with its long continuing unemployment in all European industrial States had very strongly brought two truths home to industrial workers. In the first place, it was recognised that food is the foundation of human existence and that the economic advancement of a proletariat can be ensured only on the presupposition of an abundant supply of cheap food. It was further recognised that European industry is a Colossus with feet of clay, and that possibilities of developing European industry, and thus of contributing to that advancement on behalf of the European workers, depended on an unrestricted expansion of the exchange of European manufactures for the products of oversea agriculture. This exchange had already suffered restrictions by a slowing down in the rate of development of oversea agriculture, by a rapid industrialisation

of the oversea agricultural countries in the last decade before the war, and had been specially threatened by the results of the war and of the post-war period. The consequence was to give a powerful stimulus to the interest taken by European industrial workers in their own agriculture as a basis for their food supplies and a market for their industrial products; such an idea had entirely sunk into the background during the last part of the preceding century, when the possibilities of world exchange of goods seemed so unlimited.

This change in attitude, this sudden awakening of interest in the welfare of national agriculture among industrial workers, was most clearly to be observed in England. It was in England that all classes, and particularly the industrial workers, had had the firmest belief in the permanence and the unlimited expansibility of international exchange, and had therefore had the least interest in the productive and purchasing capacities of national agriculture. Food supply difficulties during the war profoundly shook this confidence throughout the nation. The idea of increasing the output of home agriculture became an important question, not only during the war but long afterwards. It was natural that a connection should be established in people's minds between the mass unemployment of the after-war period, from which England in particular suffered so long and so terribly, and the lack of balance between manufactures and agriculture. A country which sees two millions of its industrial population remaining for years without any employment or opportunities of occupation, and which at the same time notes labour scarcity and definite depopulation in its rural areas, must quite inevitably be led to the idea that one of the chief causes of its difficulties lies in an unduly one-sided expansion of its industrial population and its industrial productive forces, and an undue neglect of its agriculture. An increased output in agriculture, a furtherance of agricultural progress by means of every educational encouragement, of State support and of co-operative self-help, thus suddenly became the essential point in Labour's agricultural policy, as it was realised that these measures not only affected the rural population but would be an indispensable prerequisite towards providing workers in over-populated European industrial countries with ample food supplies, guarantees of employment, and an increase in real wages.

The economic situation in Austria and Germany developed much as it had in England. Here also during the war the

shortage of food supplies stood in the foreground of economic thought, and after the war the problems connected with mass unemployment and with the obvious excess of industrial production. Here also similar experiences led to similar conclusions, namely, that the source of food supplies and, simultaneously, the market for industrial products would have to be widened by bringing into play the unused capacities of national agriculture. Thus the main interest of the industrial working class in agricultural problems was held to lie in as quick and as extensive a development as possible of agricultural production.

In the period immediately following the Communist Manifesto the interest in agricultural problems of the Socialist and Labour movement in these three countries had been essentially theoretical and speculative. In the period immediately preceding the war the increasing power of the workers, combined with the realisation of what hindered and limited this increase in power, turned attention more and more from theory and speculation to political agitation. The war and post-war periods, and more especially the rise of the workers' Parties to responsible political power, ushered in a completely new phase in European agrarian Socialism. The interest taken by the workers' movement in agricultural problems has now definitely become an interest in production policy; the movement looks to an expansion of the agricultural foundations of European industry, with the ultimate aim of giving to European industrial workers more certain guarantees of food and of employment.

Principal Items in the Austrian, English, and German Agricultural Programmes

The Encouragement of Agricultural Production

The three programmes clearly show the development of European agrarian Socialism from speculation through political agitation to a responsible production policy. Thus the opening sentences of the English programme state :

> Land is the basis of life. The full and proper use of land is therefore a matter of first importance to the townsman and countryman alike. . . . The nation must arrest the decline of the last half-century and by a vigorous constructive policy achieve the three-fold ideal of better farming, better business, better living.

The Austrian programme begins with the words :

> Increased productivity of agricultural work is one of the most important essentials for raising the economic level of the masses of the population, both in the country and in the town ;

and the same basic idea is expressed in the German programme in the words :

> The vital interests of the masses of the urban population are united with those of the working rural population in an increase of agricultural output. It is of decisive importance to the social advance of industrial workers to open up the unexhausted capacities of agriculture to increase its production and at the same time rationalise and cheapen it, with a view both to the food supplies of the masses and to an expansion of markets for industrial goods.

The three programmes are thus unanimous in their emphasis on this fundamental demand for a constructive workers' agricultural policy. But they further agree in stating as the most important means of achieving this aim an improvement in the standard of general instruction and culture among the rural population, the development of vocational agricultural education, and the use of all forms of what may be called extension education in order to spread technical knowledge as quickly and intensively as possible among the peasant population. They agree in demanding the improvement of the elementary schools as the basis for a better system of vocational rural schools. In England the chief problems of this type are those arising from the scattered nature of the population in wide rural areas, namely, the small size of the schools, the teaching of scholars of different ages in the same class ; methods are therefore suggested for the combination of rural elementary schools so as to create more efficient educational units, and for motor transport of children to school. In Austria and Germany, where the depopulation of rural areas has not reached so advanced a stage, there are other problems, again to be explained by historical causes : insufficient financial State grants for rural elementary schools, excessively large classes, and exemption from school attendance, the last a very serious abuse which had become widely prevalent in districts of large-scale farming, for the benefit of the rural employer and to the detriment of the child's education. All three programmes agree in demanding that after a good elementary education should follow on opportunities for extending and consolidating the instruction thus received by means of continuation schools, "people's high schools", or free secondary schools. For the actual task of

spreading knowledge of modern technical methods in agriculture, however, an agricultural vocational educational system is of special importance. In accordance with the basic Socialist principle of organising as far as may be all departments of life, the three programmes demand the setting up of a sufficiently close local educational network to provide at least one vocational school in each district. Along with the technical training of the younger rural population great importance is laid on the systematic spread of modern technical methods among the present generation already actively engaged in agriculture. A good agricultural extension advisory system is therefore necessary alongside of the vocational education system; and it is essential that this advisory system should have the closest connection with the local agricultural vocational school, since the director of this school will be at the same time the best expert for popularising technical propaganda among adult agriculturists. The words of the English programme: "It is also desirable that each county should have a Director of Agricultural Services who would be responsible for the organisation of local services of education and demonstration", not only illustrate the same fundamental conception, but even point to the same constructive schemes as the corresponding demands concerning agricultural education and extension services in the Austrian and German programmes; yet in this particular point the demands set forth in the programmes were undoubtedly conceived and formulated independently in each country and with reference to national needs.

The co-operation of the State in encouraging agricultural production is not however to be restricted to developing educational and advisory work, or to creating the good credit systems and insurance and co-operative organisations which are also demanded in the programmes. The State is to be responsible for all those methods of encouraging production which are beyond the capacities of the individual farmer and agricultural co-operative societies. Such are, in particular, schemes for land improvement, consolidation of holdings, and transport. It is the result of a particular national situation that the demands for State help in the work of consolidating holdings take up a good deal of space in the Austrian and German programmes. In Austria and in the peasant areas of South Germany the development of agricultural production is severely handicapped by the great fragmentation of holdings and the multiplicity of parcels of land. In England, on the other hand, which has left the

development of its transport system chiefly to private enterprise and has thus obviously neglected to provide transport facilities in many rural areas, the improvement of rural transport plays a very important part. Consequently a detailed chapter in the English programme is devoted to this question, and the Party is able to base its views on the work of an official committee of enquiry (the Linlithgow Committee).

The Socialist character of the three programmes is also clearly seen, in the course of their suggestions on the encouragement of production, in their unanimous demand that the State should have the right to intervene in cases of inefficient cultivation, to expropriate the land from the cultivator, and to effect a compulsory transfer to a more efficient agent of cultivation. Mental preparation for this extensive attack on private enterprise was provided, particularly in England, in the far-reaching wartime legislation passed for the purpose of increasing production, which assigned to the State, or organisations set up by the State, the right of depriving an owner or cultivator of neglected or insufficiently cultivated land, and of arranging for its cultivation by public authorities.

Land Questions

This last demand, namely, that the State should have power to expropriate from the owner land badly cultivated and to have it developed for the public interest by organs set up by public authorities, brings us from the topic of increased production to the equally central and important question of the use of the land.

In asking for increased production the three programmes are remarkably unanimous; but on this new question it would appear as though there were suddenly a fundamental difference of attitude between them. From recognition of the idea that peasant systems of farming and peasant ownership are far from disappearing and that the peasant farm appears likely, as far as can be foreseen, to remain the basic unit of agricultural production, the Austrian and German programmes draw the conclusion that the peasant's land and his place of work should be unhesitatingly recognised as his own property. In the Austrian as well as in the German programme this recognition is emphatically expressed, and not only as a temporary thing for the immediate future, but as a permanent idea in a Socialist society. The wording of the German programme :

Far from wishing to drive the peasant from his land or to confiscate his property, Socialist society guarantees to peasant masses the possession of their land and of their place of work,

is no less solemn and unequivocal than that of the Austrian programme :

Even within the framework of Socialist society the peasants will live on their land as free owners.

In the most striking apparent contrast to this recognition of the individual ownership of land is the demand of the English programme that all land should be nationalised. The radical nature of this exaggerated demand seems to be all the more emphasised inasmuch as this nationalisation of land is not considered in the light of an ultimate aim of Socialism but as a measure to be carried out here and now. The radicalism in the English programme was indeed particularly mentioned and praised by Left-Wing representatives of German Social Democracy during the Party discussions on the German programme, and the impression might arise that the English Labour Party is the only remaining stronghold of strict Marxian conceptions on the land question. In point of fact, however, no conclusion could be more misleading. For the demand of the English Labour Party for nationalisation of land is no more an indication of thorough-going "agrarian Marxism" than the recognition of peasant ownership by the Austrian and German programmes is a sign of renunciation of principle from the Marxian economic position. It is clear that this demand of the English Labour Party betrays no mere Utopian radicalism. On the contrary, it is a piece of practical policy, for it is supported not only by the Labour Party, but also by the majority of the non-Socialist politicians in England interested in agricultural problems. Even the agricultural programme of the Liberal Party drawn up under the leadership of Lloyd George includes a demand for the transfer of land from the hands of the landlords into the hands of public authority. The peculiar conditions of ownership and occupation of agricultural land in England make such demands for the nationalisation of land inevitable, just as the peculiar conditions of ownership and occupation of land in Austria and Germany make it essential to recognise the peasant system and peasant ownership. England is the classical land of tenant farming. Fully nine-tenths of the area used for agriculture is in the hands

of landlords who do not cultivate the land themselves but let it on lease, dividing it up into farms which in Germany would scarcely be described as carrying on large-scale estate farming, but would rather be defined as large peasant tenancies. This separation between ownership and farming took place long ago, and the transfer of ownership to the State would not involve for the cultivator any severing of his connection with the soil. The nationalisation of land is therefore demanded by the cultivators themselves, because they hope that their position would thereby be improved ; a considerable section of public opinion and, in particular, leading personalities interested in agricultural policy agree with this demand because they are convinced that this transfer of land from the hands of the landlords into public ownership would prove the best, indeed an essential, means, of utilising the undeveloped productive possibilities of English agriculture. The demand of the Labour Party for nationalisation of land does not rest, therefore, on a theoretical conception of the land question, but is derived from the actual conditions of ownership and cultivation in English agriculture. It aims at increasing the productivity of English agriculture and is consequently the cornerstone of the production policy of the English agricultural programme.

The apparently contradictory demands of the Austrian and German programmes must be considered from the same point of view. In both these countries, in contrast to England, the greater part of the agricultural land is directly cultivated by the owners. The areas let on lease, and particularly those let on long lease, form only a very small proportion, particularly if in the case of Germany those areas are deducted which are indeed leased but which belong to the State and are, therefore, already public property. The unit of agricultural production is the peasant farm; under this system the land has been in the possession of peasant families for generations or even centuries. Any change in the conditions of ownership in favour of nationalisation in these countries would not only be Utopian from a political point of view, but also—and this is the decisive point—completely meaningless from the point of view of Socialist production policy, since the State in leasing out this land would be burdened with the administration of hundreds of thousands or even millions of peasant holdings. No State organisation could cope with such a task, and the result could only be to lower and not to raise the standard of production on these holdings.

In the last analysis, then, the land ownership question itself shows that the Austrian, English, and German programmes are all built on the basic conception of the vital importance for the economic life of the nation of encouraging agricultural production by all possible means, and of the strong class interest of the industrial workers in the advancement of the productive forces of agriculture. Such being the common aim, the programme, in England, where the land consists chiefly of large landed estates and farms let on lease, must demand nationalisation of land since, in England, only the State can carry out those landowners' duties of encouraging production which, according to general opinion, the landlord class is no longer capable of fulfilling. Similarly in Austria and Germany, where small and medium-sized peasant holdings and peasant ownership are the rule, the programmes must recognise this peasant ownership not only now, but also in a future Socialist state of society.

A closer examination of detailed demands in connection with the land question will also show that our statement of a basic unity in the attitude of the three programmes does not force the facts but entirely corresponds with both the spirit and the letter of the texts. The Austrian and German programmes do not recognise private ownership of land as such, but merely private ownership of that land which is cultivated by peasant families. *Latifundia* are expressly excepted. The German programme demands their expropriation for compensation calculated according to their taxable value and their transfer to public ownership. The Austrian programme also demands socialisation of large estates, partly by transfer to State ownership, partly by systematic extension of communal lands. On the other hand, there are notable exceptions in the English programme to the demand for nationalisation of land, in particular in the case of holdings cultivated by their owners, including smallholdings. It is true that the English programme makes a reservation to allow for the possibility of a different system later. But the mere fact of making an exception for holdings which are worked by their owners shows that the English agricultural programme also recognises the difference between land let to tenants and land worked by the owner himself, that is to say, between the rental ownership of large estates which produce an income and the labour ownership of land by a peasant who works and cultivates that land himself. If the time should ever come for drawing up a unanimous programme of the demands of the European

Socialist and Labour movements, it would therefore not be necessary to distort any of the programmes in order to arrive at wording which would completely express their common attitude to the land problem. There is no doubt that the workers' Parties in all three countries demand the socialisation of that land which is continuously used for leasing or for the capitalist exploitation of hired workers, while they are prepared, on the other hand, to assign an exceptional position to peasant family properties which can be considered primarily as places of work.

Land Workers' Problems

On land workers' questions there is again considerable unanimity between the three programmes, extending in some cases even to the details. The Austrian programme was the first drawn up, but certainly had no influence on the composition of the English programme; when the German demands on behalf of the land workers were drawn up the English programme was not known or only partially known; the only possible conclusion is that in this as in other questions, under the influence of the same social and economic conditions, the same problems and the same trains of thought have developed quite independently in the three countries.

There are in principle two possible methods of effectively and fundamentally improving the social position of rural workers; that position is particularly low in all the European countries and has lagged considerably behind the social standards attained by the industrial workers. One method is to set up an "agricultural ladder" by increasing the size of any area of land occupied by the agricultural worker. In almost every country the agricultural worker who is employed on a larger farm receives not only money wages but also wages in kind ("*deputat*"), the value of which frequently exceeds his small money wages[1]. In addition, he usually receives a free dwelling with stable, and frequently free fodder or pasture for his cow, and a piece of land of greater or less extent which he works with the aid of his family, the employer generally providing the necessary animal labour. The supporters of the idea of the agricultural ladder demand that the small areas cultivated by agri-

[1] An exception must be admitted for England and Wales, where wages in kind are considerably less important than money wages. However, the influence of the "tied cottage" on money wages is important, though obscure.

cultural workers should be enlarged, and that in particular the worker should be granted the opportunity of leasing from his employer as much land as he can possibly manage to cultivate if he and his family exert their labour force to the utmost. In this way the emphasis of the worker's economic existence will gradually be transferred to his own holding, until finally out of the agricultural worker "by diligence and thrift" there arises the smallholding peasant. The final aim is the completely independent existence of a small peasant with sufficient ground to maintain himself, his family, and his draught animals. This solution of the problem of the agricultural worker would therefore in the long run abolish agricultural workers as such, and would gradually enlarge the family smallholdings until they absorbed the larger farms.

The other proposed solution of the land workers' problem is the exact opposite; it may be called the solution on trade union principles. Its aim is to assimilate the economic and social position of the rural worker more and more to that of the industrial worker. It therefore opposes wages in kind and demands that the agricultural worker should receive cash wages like every other worker, and should raise his wages to the same level of wages as the rest of the working class by trade union action. Hours of work in agriculture should be shortened, not in order to give the agricultural worker and his family an opportunity of working longer on their own smallholding, but in order to guarantee them a free existence worthy of the dignity of men, such as is aimed at for all workers. For the same reason supporters of this solution demand that the obligation which still exists in many places for the farm worker's wife and children to work on the farm should be abolished; they urge that grants of land in remuneration should not be increased so as to burden the worker's family with further labour, but rather that the system of payments in land should as far as possible be abolished. In particular do they object to the system of the "tied" dwelling. They would have the agricultural worker placed in the same position as the independent industrial worker in regard to the place where he lives. He should live in a freely rented dwelling where he is entirely independent of an employer's caprice and of his employment conditions, so as to be able to change his job at will and to be a free man outside his employment.

The three programmes are unanimously in favour of the second solution. The emphasis with which the German pro-

gramme, for example, demands the abolition of "deputatist" wages and "deputatist" land certainly goes further than the feelings of many sections of the agricultural workers on this subject; memories of the inflation period in Germany are still fresh, when the wages in kind paid to agricultural workers were the only wages which kept their value and when all classes of workers in rural districts and in small towns showed a great desire to get hold of land, in order to ensure a bare existence, no matter at what cost of a long and heavy day's work. The demands on this point included in the programmes show an obvious desire to educate many groups of agricultural workers to more advanced ideas; they are not to be considered as trade union demands designed to satisfy immediate requirements, but as a formal declaration of Socialist policy on the agricultural labour question. They are based on recognition of the fact that, while the lot of the agricultural workers in general is hard, its darkest side is the excessive length of the working day, particularly for women and children, together with the position of personal dependence on the employer. The first step, therefore, is to abolish these remnants of the feudal economic system, if the agricultural worker is to become an independent worker fighting successfully for improved conditions.

The idea of the "agricultural ladder", which will turn the agricultural labourer into the peasant, can never be advanced as a rival programme for solving the agricultural labour problem. The advance up the agricultural ladder demands such extraordinary efforts, such self-denial, and so much sheer luck that it must always be reserved for a few ; nor is it even certain that these few are the fortunate ones. True, the programmes express no wish to eliminate all opportunities of this type of advance, in so far as special circumstances provide special facilities for individual agricultural workers. The whole tone of the programmes, however, shows clearly that this is not the real solution aimed at, but merely a concession in exceptional cases. This adaptation to existing circumstances is particularly desirable in cases where (as in parts of Germany and more especially in large areas of Austria) the agricultural work on large estates is carried out by cottagers and small peasants whose own holding is not sufficient to occupy all their powers or to maintain their families. The protection of such half-proletarian sections of the small peasant class and the improvement of their position to one of security is not so much an agricultural labour problem as a part

of that policy of peasant protection which is also included in the programmes. The suggestion that genuine agricultural labourers may rise to become small peasants is always made with great reserve. The following is a significant sentence from the English programme:

> While in certain districts it is undesirable that the cultivation of the land should be generally developed under the system of small farming, it is equally undesirable that farm workers should be denied access to land.

The English programme is particularly detailed and suggestive in connection with agricultural labour questions. It contains not only general demands for improving the position of agricultural workers but mentions, particularly with regard to wage fixing and the construction of dwellings for agricultural workers, the practical means for attaining these ends. In dealing with wage fixing the English Labour Party was able to base its ideas on the experiences of the joint wages boards which were set up during the war and were further developed during the short period in which the Labour Party was in power. In dealing with housing there is in England important legislative and administrative material to draw on in recent years; the programme of the Labour Party is based on the experience thus available, and from this basis are developed special suggestions for a supply of independent habitable dwellings at a rent within the means of agricultural workers. The constructive idea that the local authorities should be responsible for housing policy and that the dwellings erected by these authorities, with the aid of public grants, should be rented to agricultural workers on conditions which will ensure them a dwelling-place without restricting their freedom of movement appears in exactly the same form in both the Austrian and the German programmes.

The Marketing of Agricultural Products

The fundamental change which has taken place in the attitude of the European workers' Parties to national agricultural problems is most clearly shown in their attitude to price fixing. It has already been stated that the workers' Parties in the important industrial countries of Europe were entirely on the side of the Liberal free traders during the agricultural depression at the end of the nineteenth century. The recognition of peasant agriculture

as an essential factor in all healthy economic systems and the declaration of the alliance made between industrial workers and the working agricultural population, including independent smallholders and tenant farmers, made a total revision of this attitude necessary.

The guarantee of a sufficient price for his products means the same to the working peasant as the guarantee of a reasonable wage to the industrial worker. An alliance between industrial workers and peasants can therefore be drawn up on an honest basis only if the peasant realises that rising wages for industrial workers are the best guarantee of favourable prices for the products of peasant agriculture (particularly for products in which quality is important, such as meat, eggs, butter, milk, etc.), and again only if the industrial worker realises that all labour required by the economic system is worthy of its hire and that the peasant's remuneration must be secured by regulating the marketing of agricultural products and protecting him against excessive price falls.

The common interest of producers and consumers does not depend, however, on the sole fact that each side must be in a position to buy what the other wishes to sell, but appears much more directly and emphatically in the fact that under the existing economic system both parties have to suffer equally under disastrous *price fluctuations*. The wish of the producers and sellers of foodstuffs to raise the average level of prices, and that of the consumers and buyers to lower them, are completely overshadowed by the fact that, as a result of the unregulated condition of the markets, all agricultural produce prices are sometimes far above and sometimes far below this average level. Moreover, prices are usually very low when agriculture has a large amount to sell, and very high when agriculture has just sold out the whole harvest; further, it has been found that the retail prices which the consumer has to pay rise quickly with rises in wholesale agricultural prices, but do not fall to the same extent nor at the same rate as a fall in wholesale prices. Producers and consumers can therefore serve their common interests if, by better methods of organising marketing, they can decrease price fluctuations and if, along with this decrease in price fluctuations, they can abolish the excessive discrepancy between what the consumer has to pay and what the producer receives.

Between producer and consumer there has grown up an elaborate system of merchants and distributors which . . . absorbs far too

large a percentage of the total price paid by the consumer. (English programme.)

Grains have become a prey to international speculation, the plaything on the international exchange. (Austrian programme.)

Agricultural production demands considerable stability in working and in the conditions governing its working. The wild fluctuations into which capitalist anarchy has hurled agricultural prices is in contradiction to the essential nature of agricultural enterprise. In addition, producers and consumers suffer equally under the unnaturally large discrepancy in prices with which an inflated and parasitic commercial system has burdened our modern economic life. (German programme.)

The means which the three programmes are unanimous in suggesting for combating price fluctuations and excessive middlemen's profits consist, in the first place, in a better oversight of marketing conditions. The English and German programmes demand encouragement for all measures likely to add to the knowledge of output, of market stocks, and of the conditions governing prices; marketing statistics and sales studies must therefore be developed and intensified. Permanent committees with extensive powers of enquiry are to be set up to exercise continuous supervision over marketing and to initiate systematic marketing regulation policies.

Here there is a particularly interesting agreement between the modern workers' agricultural policy and the attempts which at present are so much in evidence for Governments or Parliaments to set up committees of enquiry on economic questions, and thereby to open up new ways of handling urgent tasks of economic organisation. The workers' Parties have played a prominent part in strengthening the idea now current in every country that the growing interfusion of economics and politics necessarily enjoins a more objective attitude on Parliaments and Governments in their political operations, an attitude more firmly based on unbiased and expert elucidation of economic problems. In England since the war leading ideas current among members of the Labour Party have undoubtedly been taken into account and have influenced the proceedings of various important public enquiries into agricultural questions. The four chief enquiries of this kind (those of the Agricultural Tribunal of Investigation, the Linlithgow Committee, the Committee on the Stabilisation of Agricultural Prices, and the Royal Commission on Food Prices) were not only instituted and carried out in close touch with the movement of ideas in the Labour Party, but their results are clearly reflected in the English programme. In exactly the same

way, the extremely comprehensive Enquiry carried out in Germany since 1926 into production and marketing in German economic life was undertaken in the closest intellectual co-operation with German Social Democracy, and in the sphere of agriculture in particular the influence of Socialist systematic economic conceptions is as clearly to be traced in the work of the Enquiry as is the influence of the Enquiry's report on the agricultural policy of the Social Democrats.

The practical proposals of the workers' agricultural programmes with regard to agricultural price regulation are not, however, confined to demands for clearer elucidation of marketing processes by means of statistics and enquiries. In connection with grain supplies for bread, the three programmes are unanimous in making proposals for abolishing existing haphazard marketing methods and replacing them by a systematic planning for demand. The State grain monopoly demanded is not intended solely as a measure for protecting national production against exceptionally low prices in the world market by means of some technical methods which should be more efficient than an inelastic tariff; it is the beginning of a conception of regulating the selling of all agricultural products on a comprehensive scale and in a systematic way. Thus the English programme demands regulation of the meat supply by an Imports Board which "should be set up on the same lines as is contemplated in the case of wheat", and also nationalisation of the wholesale distribution of milk, and in general considerably more municipal control of markets. The German programme demands that "on the basis of the experience gained in stabilising the prices of grains other agricultural products should gradually be included in this stabilisation system." All three programmes lay great stress, in the systematic transformation of food supply methods, on the development of an agricultural co-operative system and of a system of direct exchange between producers' and consumers' co-operative societies. The official commentary on the German Social Democratic agricultural programme, issued by the Social Democratic Party, makes it perfectly clear that the final aim of these demands is a complete socialisation of the supply of agricultural products.

A survey of the whole sphere of agricultural production will show that there is an enormous amount of organisation required before the present state of uncontrolled marketing, with its huge fluctuations in prices and in profits for speculators, can be changed into a system in which marketing is regulated and there is scientific price adjustment be-

tween producers and consumers. In this connection the measures which must be taken for regulating the grain trade (monopoly of foreign trade) are closely connected with those which are required for regulating the potato market and the pig market, since the regulation of the prices of grain for bread is not possible without regulating the prices of grain for feed ; and again the markets for grain for feed are closely dependent on the selling of pigs and potatoes. The final effect of these measures would be a complete system of regulation of the marketing of agricultural products in which not only the State, but in particular consumers' and producers' co-operative societies, would also play their part, so that the result might almost be described as a socialisation of the marketing of agricultural products.

Socialist agricultural policy, which, as shown above, has progressed from vague theorising about dreams of an economic Utopia to active participation in present-day measures for encouraging agriculture, thus commits itself anew to the Socialist conception of a transformed economic system. This transformation no longer appears as a nebulous and distant dream, but as a problem, practical in its nature and to be solved step by step and by unceasing daily effort. The fundamental nature of the changes that have taken place in economic life in this very matter of food-stuff supplies and the practical and realistic character of the Socialist demands may be seen from the observation in the English programme, in the course of its discussion of the grain monopoly, to the effect that by far the greater part of the English milling industry is at the present day already under the control of four groups. The English programme, in noting this striking example of an extensive process of concentration, argues that hereby the baking industry is shown to be ripe for nationalisation and transformation into a public utility service run on national or public utility lines in the interests of agriculturists and consumers alike. It is interesting to note in this connection that the Co-operative Wholesale Societies of the distributive co-operative societies founded by the working classes in England and Scotland are responsible for about fifteen per cent. of the output of the British milling industry. In Germany also, although the co-operative movement is several years, if not decades, behind the stage reached by the English distributive co-operative movement, the Wholesale Purchase Federation of German Distributive Co-operative Societies *(Grosseinkaufsgesellschaft deutscher Konsumvereine)* is by far the most important existing undertaking for the supply of foodstuffs. There is the closest connection between the established and powerful position attained by the consumers' co-operative movement in the purchasing field and

the efforts so much discussed in Germany at the moment to free the grain market from the play of chance and from speculation, and to transfer large milling concerns to public ownership so as to permit of a policy of systematic adjustment of supply and demand in the grain and bread industries. The mention of this fact and the glimpse it affords of possibilities of further systematic progress form a fitting conclusion to this analysis. Nothing is better adapted to throw light on the progress of Socialist agricultural policy away from Utopian theories towards the acquisition of practical political power, and through the acquisition of such power towards a rationalised and responsible conception of a transformed economic world.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

Some Aspects of Child Labour in the United States

The Work of the Children's Bureau in 1927-1928

The Sixteenth Annual Report of the Children's Bureau [1] covers the year ending 30 June 1928. As this and previous reports show, most of the local studies made by the Bureau were undertaken at the request of State Departments, commissions, or committees, or associations interested in the welfare or care of children. The field covered by the Bureau's activities in the year under review includes maternity and infancy, child welfare and hygiene, child labour, delinquency, dependent children, and recreation. Of these activities only child labour will be considered here.

Child labour is dealt with by the Industrial Division of the Bureau, which, in 1928, continued to assemble reports on the issue of employment certificates to working children. The object of this work is to ascertain and record trends in child labour, and to gather significant facts about the age and education of children entering employment in the United States of America. Reports on certificates issued in 1927 were received from 16 States and the District of Columbia, and from 69 cities in 18 other States. It is estimated that more than half of the 14- and 15-year-old children in the United States who are at work in the occupations for which employment certificates are needed are employed in the places from which the Bureau is receiving reports. It should be recollected, however, that there are occupations in which large numbers of children are employed, such as housework and farming, which are not usually covered by State child labour laws; moreover, laws requiring working certificates are not well enforced in all States. No reports are received by the Bureau for occupations in which certificates are not required, nor, of course, concerning children illegally employed.

The number of first regular certificates issued to children 14 and 15 years old (i.e. certificates that release the child from full-time school attendance and authorise full-time employment throughout the year) showed a decrease in 1927, varying from 2 to 61 per cent. as compared with the previous year, in 11 States, 17 cities in other

[1] United States. Department of Labour: *Sixteenth Annual Report of the Chief of the Children's Bureau, Fiscal Year ended 30 June 1928.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. 53 pp.

States, and the District of Columbia. In 4 States and 8 cities in other States the decrease followed a decline in 1926 as compared with 1925. Increases in the number of certificates issued were only reported from one State and 5 cities. It is generally believed that decreases were largely due to unemployment in 1927.

Five States and 22 cities in 8 other States which, under the law or by administrative practice, require minors 16 and 17 years old to obtain employment certificates, supplied the Bureau with reports in 1927. Most showed decreases in the number of certificates issued in 1927 as compared with 1926, undoubtedly due to decline in employment opportunities.

Though the age at which children under 16 leave school to enter employment is influenced by the policies of school attendance Departments and officials issuing certificates, and by family and community standards, in the main the age and education standards of the child labour and school attendance laws determine the proportion of children receiving certificates at 14 instead of 15 years of age. Fifteen States and the District of Columbia and 41 cities in 18 other States reported the number of certificates issued to children of 14 and 15 separately. In these places 38 per cent. of the certificates were issued to children 14 years old and 62 per cent. to children 15 years old. In the States and cities requiring completion of the eighth grade and allowing no exceptions before children could receive permits, 24 per cent. of the total receiving permits were 14 years of age; in States having this requirement but allowing exceptions 29 per cent. were 14 years of age. Reports from the larger group of States requiring less than completion of the eighth grade for children 14 years old show that 43 per cent. of the certificates were issued to children 14 years old.

Nearly all places allowed certificates to be issued to both boys and girls; in these boys constituted 56 per cent. of the total in the 14- and 15-year-old group and 57 per cent. of the total in the 16- and 17-year-old group. Even in places in which more girls than boys received certificates the girls were not much more numerous than the boys. The employments in which girls usually predominated were domestic and personal service.

Only two per cent. of the 14- and 15-year-old children were coloured. This is probably due to the fact that coloured children usually find employment in agriculture, for which certificates are seldom required by law. In cities negro girls, and to some extent negro boys, go into domestic and personal service, and though in some places certificates are required for this work evidence seems to show that, owing to lack of control, many children infringe the law in this matter.

As regards educational standards, 58 per cent. of the 14- and 15-year-old children entering employment in 1927 had completed the eighth or a higher grade, as compared with 56 per cent. in 1926; while 25 per cent. in 1927, as compared with 28 per cent. in 1926, had only completed the sixth or a lower grade. The proportion of girls and boys completing the eighth grade was nearly the same.

It is believed that the grade requirement set by law is probably the most influential factor in deciding the educational attainments of the child leaving school for work.

Information concerning occupational groups was received from a much larger number of States and cities than in 1926. Children entering manufacturing and mechanical occupations numbered 42 per cent. of the 14- and 15-year-old group; 27 per cent. entered mercantile establishments, and the remaining 31 per cent. went into public messenger service, or errand and delivery work, domestic and personal service, office work, and miscellaneous occupations not classified. More boys than girls went into manufacturing and mercantile occupations, while in office work there was a relatively larger proportion of girls. Messenger service employed very few girls and personal service very few boys.

Many States issue special temporary certificates for employment during school vacations and out of school hours; the object of these is to enable children to work without leaving school. It is customary to require the same evidence of age as for regular certificates but to waive the educational requirement, as the certificate does not release the child from school attendance. In a number of places more certificates of this kind than regular certificates were issued: their use, however, depends upon the amount of short-time employment available and also upon the extent to which issuing officers succeed in persuading children qualified for regular work permits to accept temporary permits and to remain on at school.

Other reports completed by the Bureau during the past year include a survey of children engaged in street trading in eight cities and a report on industrial home work in New Jersey. These are summarised below.

Child Street Traders in the United States [1]

In the progress of child labour reform street trading has received comparatively little attention. This is due to several reasons. Perhaps the chief of these is that the street trader, unlike the factory worker, runs no risk of having his education cut short as the work is performed mostly outside school hours; therefore the school attendance laws pass him by. The same is true of those laws framed to protect children employed in industry and commerce which take into consideration children paid to work for an employer. Then there is the romantic conception that the newsboy or bootblack may be a destitute orphan or the sole support of a widowed mother; while the fact that a few who began as street traders have risen to success and even eminence has been known to mislead even sincere friends of children. Finally, the public, seeing the street trader at work, is apt unconsciously to assume that it knows all about the

[1] Department of Labour, Children's Bureau: *Children in Street Work*. Bureau Publication No. 183. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. 353 pp.

occupation, forgetting that street work, like all social problems, involves many factors not apparent to the casual observer.

There exist no comprehensive surveys of the work of street traders in the United States. For this reason in 1922-1923 the Children's Bureau of the Federal Department of Labour began a study of the extent and conditions of street work among children under 16 years of age in seven cities [1], selected firstly, because they represented communities having different types of street-trades regulation; secondly, because local co-operation was assured; and thirdly, because they were in different parts of the country and differed industrially in the composition of their populations.

The cities were revisited in 1926 or 1927 in order to ascertain whether the situation had altered. In none had any important changes taken place.

Practically every form of street trading would seem to have been considered, the report dealing with newspaper sellers (the bulk of it is devoted to this occupation), newspaper "carriers" (that is to say, children employed to deliver newspapers from door to door to subscribers), pedlars, bootblacks, magazine carriers and sellers, and a small miscellaneous group [2].

The Workers and Working Conditions

Newspapers Sellers.

Most street workers are employed in connection with the sale and distribution of newspapers, and though the age at which children enter the majority o foccupations is gradually rising this is not the case with the newsboy. In each of the cities surveyed children of 6 and 7 sold newspapers, and from 11 to 21 per cent. of them were under 10 years old. In three cities more than one-sixth were under 10. This was not due to the fact, rather generally believed but shown to be erroneous, that small boys make the most sales; it was because managers, faced with the necessity of selling without delay the most perishable of all products, would distribute papers to boys so small that they had to stand on tip-toe to reach the counter. In all seven cities the sale of newspapers by young children was restricted by State laws or local ordinances, but these were everywhere disregarded to a greater or lesser extent, and at the best the effort to enforce them was feeble.

Though the hours of newspaper sellers were regulated by street trades ordinances or by law, very little attention was paid to these provisions. Boys at school usually sold evening papers, which came

[1] These were: Atlanta, Ga.; Columbus, Ohio; Newark, N.J.; Omaha, Nebr.; Paterson, N.J.; Washington, D.C.; and Wilkes-Barre, Pa. Troy, N.Y., is also included in the study of newspaper carriers.

[2] The last two groups have been omitted from the present notice, as the occupations are either confined to a very small number of children or present no special features.

from the press at about the time school was dismissed. They usually continued to sell until about 6.30 or 7.30 p.m., when the demand would drop off. Whether or not work was continued after 8 p.m. depended on local conditions, but in all the cities except Columbus at least a few newsboys were on the streets on school nights until 10 p.m. or later. Saturdays presented a special problem, as late selling is the rule on Saturday nights. This is because Sunday papers are issued on Saturday evening in time to reach the theatre and restaurant crowds, and yield a larger profit than the daily papers. In all the cities except two a large proportion of the newsboys worked on Saturday nights until at least 10 p.m., and in three many of them worked until midnight or later. This often followed many hours of work on the streets, as, with papers appearing almost every hour, many newsboys made an all-day affair of selling papers on Saturdays, leaving home before noon and in some cases not returning until 2 or 3 in the morning. Some did not return at all, spending the night in the distribution rooms so as to be out on the streets early on Sunday mornings with the papers.

The hours worked were long. For boys working on school days, that is to say, from one-half to more than three-fourths of the sellers, the average number of hours' selling on school days was between 3 and 5 in four cities and between 2 and 3 in two cities. The average week was between 16 and 24 hours in four cities and between 8 and 16 in three cities. In all cities combined it was approximately 16 hours. Including their 25 hours of school work, slightly more than half the sellers were working 41 hours a week or more.

The weekly earnings in four out of the seven cities were between $3 and $5, in two between $2 and $3, and in the other between $1 and $2. The proportion earning at least $5 a week was 24 per cent. in Paterson, 27 per cent. in Omaha, 28 per cent. in Washington, and 44 per cent. in Atlanta, where profits were unusually large. More than half the boys in three cities contributed at least a part of these earnings to family support, but the proportion thus contributed was not ascertained. It is pointed out that this does not necessarily reflect upon the need of the families for the money as most of the children were foreign born, and this class expects help from their children even should the family be fairly prosperous. The majority of boys helped indirectly by buying some part of their clothing or other personal necessaries.

Questioned as to the reason for selling papers the majority of boys did not give actual want as the motive, but interviews with parents made it clear that the desire that their children should earn money was the cause of many boys' being at work. Another reason was the lack of recreational facilities; this tended to make boys unable to resist the lure of the streets.

There would seem to be ample evidence to support the charge, frequently made, that the moral risks of this occupation are considerable. These risks principally arise in the distribution rooms, which are frequented by men of a very low type. Concerning health risks, no conclusive evidence was obtained that newspaper selling

was especially unfavourable to health, but it is suggested that the long hours combined with lack of sufficient sleep, the want of proper meals, the over-stimulating environment and the exposure to all sorts of weather—all inseparable from newspaper selling—are likely to have serious disadvantages on the physical side.

Newspaper Carriers.

Boys delivering papers from house to house, known as "newspaper carriers", were a little older than those selling papers. This work is neither unduly fatiguing nor inordinately stimulating. It is performed at regular times, is paid a fixed sum, and does not in any particular manner expose the worker to temptations or bring him into contact with bad influences.

A large proportion of the boys were under 12 and a few were under 10 years old. None of the ordinances applicable to newspaper selling in the cities studied applied to carriers. In New York and Pennsylvania the State law applied and imposed a minimum age limit of 12 years, but so little attempt was made to enforce the law that the persons most concerned were generally unaware of its existence.

Hours of work, except in the case of morning papers, were unobjectionable. Boys with routes for evening papers usually finished before 6 or 6.30 p.m., so that their work, except for a short time in the winter, did not keep them out after dark or interfere with the family life. A few boys on morning routes reported that they started on their rounds as early as 3.30 or 4 a.m., and though those on morning routes were mostly older boys, some under 12 and a few under 10 years old were doing this work. On Sundays almost all carriers worked in the morning and in many cases the hours were very early.

As the carrier's round usually takes about an hour, most worked less than two hours on school days and many less than one hour. On Saturdays the hours were longer, and on Sundays they were longest of all. But the great majority of carriers in each city worked less than 12 hours weekly.

Many newspaper carriers delivered loads of 100 papers weighing 50 pounds. Some carried these loads in canvas bags slung on their shoulders, others used handcarts. Carriers who received a regular wage were usually paid only a small amount: between $1 and $2 a week was a common wage.

Pedlars.

Each city included in the survey had at least a few children who made a practice of going about the street with something to sell, or who accompanied hawkers on their rounds. This work varied with almost every individual. In some cases it amounted to very little, as when a boy from a comfortable home spent a few hours weekly selling flowers from his own garden. But in other cases children were found working every day, or every day except Sunday,

for very long hours. By far the greater number worked at least two hours on school days; in one city 55 per cent. of the pedlars worked three hours or longer daily in addition to time spent at school. On Saturday the great majority worked at least 5 hours a day, and 10 or 12 hours or more was common. These hours constituted a great hardship for boys accompanying hawkers, and especially for those expected to carry heavy containers of fruit or vegetables from wagon to door all day.

Among the children selling miscellaneous articles the danger of peddling lay in its being used as a cloak for begging. This attitude was sometimes encouraged by parents; one mother boasted that her two children, aged 7 and 8 years, had made as much as $7 in two days selling sweets; while two small boys selling bananas supported their stepmother and father, the father saying that the children made more than he could.

Bootblacks.

The occupation of bootblack is believed to be disappearing, but in all except one of the seven cities some boys were found in the occupation.

The average age of a bootblack was 12 years. Almost all were foreign born, chiefly Italian, but a few among them were negroes. The work is done under much the same conditions as newspaper selling, except that the boy is more his own master and therefore receives less discipline. In one city bootblacks were generally out all day and on Saturdays sometimes worked far into the night. In another 40 per cent. worked six or seven days a week; 37 per cent. worked 3 hours or more on school days and 13 per cent. worked at least 8 hours on Saturday. The weekly hours of 22 per cent. were at least 24, or over 48 if school time were counted. On school-day evenings 19 per cent. were out until 8 and 10 p.m.

Girls in Street Trades.

That street work is believed to be specially undesirable for girls is indicated by the fact that most regulations fix a much higher minimum age for girls than for boys, usually 16 or 18 years. The investigation revealed 118 girls 6 to 15 years old employed in street trades in six of the seven cities, while 25 others reported that they were selling articles for premiums. Ninety-two girls were pedlars or newspaper carriers; only a few sold newspapers.

Laws regulating Street Work

Legal regulation is said to be not nearly so general in street trades as in industrial occupations, nor so fully developed. Laws applying specifically to children engaging in street work were found in only 20 States and the District of Columbia. Local regulation through city ordinances has supplanted State legislation, the ordinances following the same lines as the State laws but having, on the whole,

lower standards and less specific administrative provisions. Minimum ages for boys are considerably lower than for industrial employment and little attempt has been made to regulate maximum hours, owing to the irregularity of hours of street work and the difficulty of enforcing such a regulation.

Fifteen State laws required permits or badges for street trading, usually issued by some school authority. But the requirements for badges fell below those for children seeking work permits for industry. Two laws required no evidence as to age and only seven needed a medical examination. Enforcement was usually in the hands of issuing officials, but there was less centralisation of authority for enforcement and inspection than under the regular child labour laws. Many cases were found in which school officials were issuing badges in a perfunctory manner; in one instance the school superintendent had delegated this work to the circulation manager of the largest local newspaper.

Street work being an unstable form of employment and usually carried on outside school hours, inspection was difficult even in places where the inspector was aided by a well-administered badge system. Constant patrolling of the streets and visiting of newspaper distribution offices is essential if the law is to be respected and the inspector to become familiar with the boys legally qualified to work.

The principal legal restriction on street workers is the night-work prohibition. This was often found to be poorly enforced, either because the inspecting system generally was weak or because the inspectors, being school officials, could not patrol the streets day and night.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Selling newspapers, being done outside school hours, would not seem to retard a boy's education. Although the investigation showed that some boys were retarded, too many factors in home and school environment were involved to enable conclusions to be drawn. Nor are conclusions reached as to its physical effects, as the extent of the enquiry did not justify this.

The moral influences surrounding the work are thought to make it a dangerous occupation for children. Distributing rooms are said to attract men from whom newsboys may learn at first hand the very technique of crime and moral perversion. These boys have a delinquency rate several times higher than that of other groups, and although this is put down in part to home and other influences, it is believed that the life newsboys lead at impressionable ages helps to account for it. This leads to the conclusion that newspaper selling by children should be regulated in the same way as other forms of child labour. The age minimum should be as high as public opinion will consent to, and prohibition should be aimed at, as soon as possible, for boys under 16. Where employment is permitted for boys under 16 night work should be prohibited; this would automatically restrict the daily working hours.

As there are health risks, due to the strain of exposure to all weathers and to work outside school, a physical examination, such as is required by the best child labour laws, is advocated. Adequate penalties should be imposed for breaches of the law, and they should be placed upon the child, the parent, and the newspaper publisher or dealer. Moreover, the law should punish publishers and others for permitting boys to loiter about such places as distributing rooms. The badge system is regarded as the best aid to enforcement, and it is believed to be important that enforcing officials should seek the co-operation not only of the boys themselves, but of their parents, of newspaper publishers, and of the school authorities. Finally, economic factors, such as the removal of the need for children to help in the support of their parents, should not be overlooked, while public opinion should be educated and made aware that the regulation of such a calling is in the best interests of children and of society.

The allied occupation of newspaper carrying is considered to be relatively unobjectionable and not to offer such possibilities of danger as would seem to justify the application of the stringent measures advocated for newspaper selling.

Of peddling it is said that no excuse exists for the child pedlar on the streets. The public is conveniently supplied with all the commodities offered by these children, the work is demoralising to the child, and its connection with begging and vagrancy is established. It should be specifically prohibited by street-trading laws and ordinances, and the prohibition should include children accompanying an adult pedlar.

The abolition of the child bootblack is also advocated, as the work has all the disadvantages of newspaper selling and some others in addition. Its suppression should be all the easier as neither the public nor any class of employer has an interest in keeping the bootblack on the street.

Children in Industrial Home Work in New Jersey [1]

The investigation upon which this report is based was made by the Industrial Division of the Federal Children's Bureau and was one of several studies made by the Bureau relating to the employment of children of school age in New Jersey.

The State of New Jersey, the report points out, has an importance in industrial home work far beyond the extent to which its own manufacturers make use of the home work system. This is because its nearness to New York and Philadelphia, both centres employing home workers in large numbers, provides an ample and convenient supply of labour for home work, and because employers in these places, by sending the work to New Jersey, are beyond the jurisdiction of the laws of their own State and can seldom, if ever, be prosecuted.

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[1] Department of Labour, Children's Bureau: *Child Labour in New Jersey.* Part 2: *Children engaged in Industrial Home Work.* Bureau Publication No. 185. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. 62 pp.

In many respects the New York and Pennsylvania laws to regulate home work are stricter than those of New Jersey ; the first two both regulate home work through their child labour laws, but in New Jersey not only is the child labour law not construed to apply to work done for factories at home, but the so-called " sweatshop " law which regulates industrial home work does not regulate the employment of children, or place any penalty for the violation of its provisions on the employer. This law requires licences to be obtained before home work may be carried on in any tenement or dwelling house, and before a licence may be granted certain provisions relating to sanitation and health have to be complied with, while the manufacture of certain articles is prohibited. But the penalty for violating the provisions of this law falls, not on the person giving out the home work, but on the owner, lessee, or occupant of the building where the work is carried on ; it is, therefore, extremely difficult of enforcement. Factory inspectors inspect for home work ; but, through lack of staff and of funds, little was done until the State Department of Labour made a study of the subject which drew public attention to the extent of home work in New Jersey and the amount of child labour connected with it. As a result of the investigation special efforts were made to license all places where home work was being done, but this did not get over the difficulty that the persons giving out home work could not be prosecuted, while the situation could not be controlled by prosecuting the home-working families who, as occupants, were liable under the law. To discourage the employment of children parents were prosecuted under the New Jersey child welfare law, and notices were printed on the licences to the effect that they did not permit child labour. At the same time an attempt was made to have the " sweatshop " law amended so as to impose penalties on the employers, but it was unsuccessful. This was the position in 1923, in which year 8,742 licences were issued to families in 242 cities and towns throughout the State. A very considerable number of families, in addition, worked without licences.

Scope and Method of Study

The Bureau's study was made in 1925. The method adopted was to canvass children under 16 years old attending the public schools in selected localities and to ascertain the names and addresses of those who did factory work at home. Visits to the homes of the children were made and manufacturers, contractors, and other interested persons or agencies were interviewed. Only public school children were interviewed, not those in parochial schools, though these form a considerable portion of the school population. Moreover, even reports from public schools could not be considered complete, as some working children failed to report.

Seven carefully chosen cities in New Jersey were visited and work histories were obtained for 1,131 children in 628 families. All the manufacturers and contractors who gave out work to these families who could be located were interviewed ; the numbers reached 158

manufacturers and 99 contractors. Aid was also given by the State Department of Labour and by certain social agencies.

The Home Work System

Industrial home work is distributed in New Jersey not only by manufacturers within the State but also by those of neighbouring manufacturing centres, chiefly New York City. Of the 158 manufacturers interviewed 102 had headquarters outside the towns included in the study and 91 were outside the State of New Jersey.

The establishments themselves ranged in size from the very small undertaking with only one or two inside workers to the factory with several hundred employees. The number of home workers, from one to 400 per establishment, bore no relation to the number of inside workers. Those obtaining work directly from the manufacturers and contractors visited numbered at least 4,680. More actually worked on the materials sent out, as in most cases the individual obtaining the work represented a family of home workers, and in some cases was a contractor who distributed the work to other persons.

The methods of distributing varied with the different industries. Only about a third of the manufacturers interviewed gave out work directly to the home workers ; about half gave it out through contractors and about one-sixth used both methods. Contractors are of two types, home contractors who act primarily as distributing agents, though they may have a small improvised workshop in their own homes to which outside workers come, and factory contractors who are in reality manufacturers themselves. The latter receive their material from manufacturers ready to be put together, and after making it up in their workshops or factories, send it out to the home workers for the finishing processes.

The Home Workers

The workers were recruited largely from the women of foreign-born families. This is because for a woman immigrant the work is simple and easily learned and, as it does not bring the worker into contact with the public, she is at no disadvantage through ignorance of the language and customs of a new country. Once begun it tends to be continued with the co-operation of most of the members of the family, and many foreign housewives come to regret this. The predominance of foreign families was characteristic of all the seven cities visited, and 87 per cent. of the foreign families and 79 per cent. of all the families studied were Italian.

The work is usually done by persons of all ages and all degrees of skill. In the 628 families visited 63 per cent. of the workers were children under 16 years old. The mother generally initiated and directed the work, pressing into the service as many other members of the family as she could. The mothers themselves also worked many hours a day, in addition to the time spent in household duties

or in caring for the children. Other members of the family, including brothers and sisters of 16 years or over, fathers, and occasional relatives, comprised only 10 per cent. of the group. The work lends itself readily to the employment of children, and one of its outstanding features is the tendency of parents to use their children's labour. Only very simple processes are sent out from the factory, and these are simplified still further in the home until even the very youngest children can perform them ; thus in the carding of safety pins, children too young to fasten the pins in the cards can open them in readiness for a more skilled worker. In one household visited three children of 9, 4, and 3 years old opened safety pins, while a grandmother, an aunt and two children of 9 and 10 years old carded them. Such a division of labour is easily applied to all occupations and it speeds up the work to a surprising degree, while the children so employed become more and more skilful. In some instances (109 children out of the 1,131 interviewed) the work was done by children without assistance ; most of these children were 12 years old or over.

Of the 1,131 workers interviewed almost one-fourth were under 10 years old and more than half were 10 to 13 years inclusive. A little more than one-fifth were 14 years or more. Nineteen were only 6 years old and six were even younger. Three out of four working children were girls. Girls, it was explained, were easier to manage and boys, even if under the legal age for employment, could procure work in the streets and outside which they found more attractive and more remunerative than work at home.

Most of the families confined themselves to one kind of work. By far the largest number of children (44 per cent.) worked on men's clothing; the next largest group (10 per cent.) worked on women's clothing, and the remainder were employed on various kinds of work, of which the most important were making powder puffs, stringing tags, making artificial flowers and dolls' clothes, work on handkerchiefs, lace and embroidery, making bead jewellery, and carding buttons and safety pins. In addition it usually fell to the lot of the children to fetch and deliver the work ; this often meant carrying heavy loads a mile or more with perhaps two or three flights of stairs at the end of the trip. Of the 470 children who worked on men's coats, 198 had helped to carry them ; more than half were under 12 years old and about a fourth were under 10. Three small children of 11, 9, and 7, years old were found each carrying loads of at least 20 coats on his head, the bundles so nearly covering the child that, viewed at a short distance, the coats appeared to be moving along by themselves.

Hours and Night Work

Work was done both during school vacations and in term time. Most of the children worked only on weekdays ; only 20 worked every day of the week including Sunday. Owing to the irregularity of the work many children could give no definite information about hours. Data were, however, obtained from 715 of the 1,065 children who worked in term time and for 448 of the 736 children who worked

in vacation. Of the children working in term time 372 (52 per cent.) usually worked at least two hours daily and 189 (26 per cent.) worked three hours or more daily. Two hundred and sixty (71 per cent.) who worked two hours a day or more worked as a rule at least five days a week and some six or seven. It is to be noted that these hours are in addition to those spent at school and on the housework that usually falls to the lot of girls in working families.

Even children working less than three hours a day frequently worked at night. Of the 1,033 children who worked during the school year and reported night work 475 (45 per cent.) said it was customary for them to work in the evening after supper whenever work was available. Only 336 however were able to furnish reliable data concerning night work. Of these the working hours of 153 (46 per cent.) were usually two or more and of 67 (20 per cent.) three hours or more ; the large majority were employed at least five days a week and more often six. There were 145 children, of whom 108 usually worked five days a week, who worked as late as 9 p.m., and 52, of whom 40 worked at least five days a week, said it was quite usual for them to work as late as 10 p.m. Twenty children worked until 11 p.m. or later and all but 6 worked at least five days a week. Some instances of extreme hours were reported ; thus, 38 children were employed five hours a day in addition to work at school, and 12 of these worked six hours or more.

The hours of children working in vacation were longer than those employed in term time, though less so than might have been expected. Of the 448 children reporting work in vacation 62 per cent. usually worked two hours or more a day and 40 per cent. worked three hours or more. Night work was done a little less frequently, only 34 per cent. reporting work after supper. But night work in the summer vacation was usually done out of doors and in daylight, and could not be compared with the same work done at other seasons by artificial light in a closed room, where the entire family would be congregated in order to save the expense of heating the other rooms.

In addition to hours spent in working much time was taken up in going to and from the factory and in waiting there for work to be distributed. Frequently an hour or more would be so consumed.

Older children usually worked longer hours than the younger ones. This was partly due to the younger children being unable to concentrate on the employment for long periods, and partly to the fact that the minor processes done by such children took less time those done by the older ones.

All sorts of methods were used to keep the children at work. Some parents set definite assignments for them to do each day ; some coaxed or bribed them ; some kept up interest by arousing a spirit of rivalry among the different members of the family ; one mother used home work as a punishment, and a few beat their children if they would not work.

Earnings of Home Workers

Earnings were exceedingly low. Manufacturers make use of home workers because they can pay them less than factory workers.

and home workers are anxious to eke out a meagre family income, and having no other work to which they can turn in the intervals of household duties, not only accept the low wages in preference to none, but take them as a matter of course. Competition among families to obtain work helps to keep wages down and even to lower them. According to the statement of one of the workers, if contractors and manufacturers, in distributing a new type of home work, found home workers were making too good wages, they would reduce the rate until the wages did not exceed 10 cents an hour. Manufacturers reported that they had no trouble in getting workers; women begged for the work, and commonly there was not enough to go round.

The rates of pay varied with the work to be done. Of 356 children who were able to give any information as to their individual earnings, 67 per cent. earned less than 15 cents an hour, 40 per cent. less than 10 cents, and 12 per cent. less than 5 cents when working at their best speed. Group earnings were similarly low, only 22 per cent. of the 368 families earning as much as 40 cents an hour, though the number of workers in the family ranged from two to six, and with a few exceptions included an adult and frequently two. Of 334 families who kept an account of their yearly earnings from home work almost half reported that they had made less than $100 in the 12 months.

Condition of Workplaces

Many of the families visited lived in overcrowded quarters and few had a room to devote exclusively to the work in hand. Many had not even a cupboard in which to keep the materials, which were littered about the floor and in all sorts of places. The large majority of the houses were clean and in fairly good condition, but some were extremely neglected and others filthy. Rather more than three-fifths of the 628 families visited carried on their work in the kitchen, which was often the living and dining room and occasionally bedroom as well. The remaining families had a living room, a dining room, or some other place in which to work. Twenty had unused rooms or cellars, or small sheds in the back yard. Two families worked in the public hallway of the tenement building in which they lived, and in 39 the work was done at the houses of neighbours or relatives or of the contractor.

Each mother interviewed was asked if any illnesses had occurred in the family within the three years preceding the interview. Twenty-seven homes were found in which work had been carried on while some member of the family was known to be suffering from a communicable disease, and several others in which it had been carried on while infectious diseases were believed to be present, though a definite diagnosis was not obtained. Among illnesses of this kind were measles, chicken pox, whooping cough, tuberculosis, scarlet fever, erysipelas, influenza, syphilis, and gonorrhea. Other cases of communicable disease may have occurred whose existence parents were unwilling to reveal through fear that their work might be taken from them.

Small-Scale Rural Industries in Northern Europe and in Switzerland

A number of countries are at present studying the problems involved in the organisation and development of small-scale rural industries. The report analysed below [1] forms a valuable contribution to the examination of the subject, as it contains information concerning some of the countries in which industries of this kind have of late years acquired considerable importance.

Origin and Scope of the Enquiry

The report in question represents part of the work undertaken by a special Committee set up by the Swiss Federal Council, in accordance with a suggestion made by Mr. Baumberger, one of its members, during the sitting of 2 December 1924. Its purpose was to determine the causes of the depopulation of the mountain districts in Switzerland, and to try to find a remedy by improving the economic position of the inhabitants of the upper valleys. One of the first remedies to be studied by the Committee was the encouragement of small-scale rural industries regarded as accessory or seasonal occupations which would not deprive agriculture of needed labour, but would provide this labour with supplementary resources. Accordingly, a Subcommittee was set up to study the most appropriate means for attaining this object. This Subcommittee commenced its work in July 1926 ; it began by directing its attention to small-scale rural industries in the countries of Northern Europe, and instructed Dr. E. Laur, jun., to undertake an enquiry on the spot. The results of Dr. Laur's investigations are contained in the report analysed in the present article.

The enquiry was conducted principally in Sweden, and in Norway and Denmark ; certain information relating to Finland was also obtained. The report further contains a brief chapter in which the principles of organisation applicable to Switzerland are examined in the light of the information collected. In addition, there is an appendix giving some particulars of rural industries in Germany, Russia, Poland, Hungary, the Balkan States, Italy, and Ireland ; and there are illustrations showing the products of rural industries in Sweden and Norway.

Attention was mainly directed to home handicrafts ; a Norwegian experiment in the organisation of home industry is also described.

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[1] *Die bäuerliche Heimarbeit in den nordischen Staaten Europas.* Bericht über die im Auftrage der Subkommission V für die Beratung der Motion Baumberger durchgeführte Studienreise nach Schweden, Norwegen und Dänemark, erstattet von Dr. Ernst Laur, jun., in Zürich. Separatabdruck aus dem Landwirtschaftlichen Jahrbuch der Schweiz 1928. Berne, Verbandsdruckerei A. G., 1928. 124 pp.

A distinction must in fact be made between these two classes of rural industry in all countries or districts where agriculturists carry on some other trade in addition to their agricultural work.

(*a*) Home handicrafts (*Hemslöjd* in Swedish) are always connected with crafts handed down by long tradition, as, for example, hand weaving, embroidery, woodcarving, lacemaking, etc. The work is usually done either entirely by hand or with the aid of simple tools, but it often calls for a considerable degree of skill. A part of the product of these handicrafts goes to supply the rural family's own needs; the remainder is either disposed of on the local market or sent to other and larger centres; or it may even reach the international market. Articles so produced are frequently sought after on account of their artistic character.

Generally, however, there is no attempt on the part of these handicrafts to adapt their output to an already existing demand. The first step towards giving them a degree of stable prosperity is, therefore, to ensure the regular distribution of their products upon known markets. This, however, calls for well-planned organisation, beyond both the capacity and the means of these handicraft workers. Either public authorities or private associations interested in the well-being of rural families or the maintenance of popular artistic traditions will have to take the initiative in reviving the old traditional handicrafts, adapting them to modern tastes, and finding suitable markets for their output. Handicraft products are sometimes rather costly, and a considerable period may sometimes elapse between their manufacture and their sale. Consequently, organisations for the revival and expansion of these handicrafts will often require a considerable amount of capital.

(*b*) Home industry, as carried on in most European countries, originated in quite another way, and operates under very different conditions. Its development is encouraged by demands already existing on the market. Thus, to meet their needs, urban industries seek workers in country and mountain districts who are prepared to supply articles which they manufacture in their own homes, such as ready-made clothing, underwear, the products of the watchmaking industry, etc. Home industry is often carried on with the help of small machines, which are frequently worked by electricity. As the use of the small electric motor grows more general, home industry in rural districts becomes continually more widespread. As the goods produced usually correspond to an existing demand, the marketing of them by the workers themselves is not so difficult to organise. It is a matter of prime importance for workers engaged in home industry that they should, through their own organisations, keep in close touch with the market themselves, and eliminate middlemen.

While in most countries the development of home industry has not been hindered by the expansion of industry properly so called — often, indeed, the two have progressed on parallel lines — the existence of home handicrafts, on the contrary, has frequently been menaced by the competition of factory-made goods.

In Sweden, home handicrafts have attained a high degree of development : in Norway, side by side with organisations for the encouragement of handicrafts, a peculiarly interesting organisation has been created for home industry ; while Switzerland is among the countries seeking both to rehabilitate home handicrafts and to reorganise home industry on more satisfactory lines.

Information Collected

Sweden

In Sweden, home handicrafts passed through a severe depression during the second half of the nineteenth century ; the last twenty years, however, have witnessed their revival.

As far as possible, the peasants utilise their own raw materials — wood, flax, and wool. Wood working is principally done by the men, while weaving, lacemaking, and knitting are left to the women.

Weaving is the most important of the home handicrafts. Part of the wool is spun in the worker's home, the yarn thus obtained being used for the finest quality of textiles. The rest of the wool is spun in factories. Handicraft weaving produces materials for upholstery and hangings, carpets, women's dress materials, ribbons, blankets, etc.

Part of the goods made go to satisfy the needs of the worker and his household, and the rest is sold. The total value of the present annual production of home handicrafts in Sweden is estimated at about 50 million Swiss francs.

The revival has been fostered and guided by associations for the encouragement of home handicrafts (the *Förening för svensk Hemslöjd* is the most important of these), to which the peasants are directly affiliated, paying an annual membership fee of from 50 öre to 5 kronor. These associations, whose managing committees include a number of persons of standing who are not handicraft workers, work on the principle that organisation of home handicrafts is necessary, but that isolated agricultural workers will never arrive at concerted action unless they are given outside encouragement.

The work of the associations has two sides, a moral and a commercial. Under their guidance, traditional handicrafts have been studied region by region. Complete lists have been made of the handicrafts that still exist or have previously been followed in each locality. These data have been used as a basis for the attempt to resuscitate the traditional designs and shapes by adapting them to modern tastes and needs. With this object in view the associations have organised special experimental workshops, from which the workers may borrow patterns and designs and where they can obtain the raw materials for any given model. They have also started schools, and they organise courses by travelling instructors, exhibitions, ectures, etc., and publish works on home handicrafts. They help

in the revival of old processes, such as those for the production and utilisation of vegetable dyes, and try to improve the quality of the raw materials used ; for example, they have succeeded in producing a breed of sheep which gives a very superior quality of wool. Most of the funds needed for these activities are supplied by the State.

From the commercial point of view the greatest difficulty to be overcome is irregularity in delivery of the goods, an irregularity caused by the very nature of home handicrafts. Experience has shown that the associations must purchase the goods for cash, payment being made by the piece. Sale on commission is, in fact, hardly possible ; for while the articles produced may sometimes remain in stock for a considerable time, the peasants need the money immediately. Especially in the initial period, purchase for cash requires a considerable amount of capital. The capital of the associations is made up partly of honorary members' contributions and bank credits, but mainly of subsidies from the State. The total turnover of all the associations amounted in 1926 to two million kronor.

In order to protect the goods made by handicrafts workers from imitation by large-scale industry, the State has authorised the associations to place a special trademark on articles marketed by them.

Norway

Home handicrafts in Norway and the organisations for promoting them are very similar to those described above for Sweden, but are less highly developed.

In home industry the workers find greater difficulty in organising than workers in factories and workshops, owing to their isolation from one another. They are often exploited by the middlemen who place the goods they produce upon the market. Accordingly, the organisation which has been established in Norway is of great interest.

Since 1920, offices working on a co-operative basis have been set up which supply the peasants with raw materials for making any articles that the office expects to be able to sell, such as furniture in stock patterns, wooden kitchen and other utensils, metal articles such as knives, shovels, etc., and toys. These offices also furnish the designs. Payment is made in cash.

The various offices have also established schools for their members, and loan funds giving ten years' credit for the purchase of machinery. The State has placed a sum of money at the disposal of the offices for the latter purpose.

Denmark

In Denmark, home handicrafts are carried on only to supply the needs of the workers' own households, and there are no marketing organisations. As the climate is less rigorous, agriculture does not leave so much of the peasants' time unoccupied as in Sweden, Norway, and Finland. Nevertheless, home handicrafts are encouraged by associations, at present numbering 250.

Finland

In Finland also home handicrafts are of considerable importance. The principal products are wooden articles, "rya" carpets, etc. Associations for the encouragement of home handicrafts are very similar to those of Sweden; and, as in Sweden, special schools, lectures, and courses of instruction are organised.

In each of the four northern countries the associations for the encouragement of home handicrafts are grouped in a national federation. In 1926, these federations combined to form a confederation, the *Nordens Hemslöjds-Förbund*, for promoting the necessary relations and the exchange of experiences between the members.

Switzerland

As in the northern countries, the inhabitants of the mountain districts in Switzerland have long tried to find occupations to supplement what they earn from agricultural work. While far behind the Scandinavian countries in both the importance and the variety of their home handicrafts, certain parts of Switzerland supply articles comparable with those produced by Swedish handicraft workers, e.g. the Appenzell and St. Gall embroideries, the Bernese Oberland wood carvings, and the textiles of Canton Valais. There has been severe depression in all these handicrafts for at least ten years; the inhabitants are leaving the mountain districts and some handicrafts are being completely lost. It is hoped, however, that a reawakening of old traditions may perhaps result in restoring and renewing these handicrafts and enabling them to cover some of the needs of the peasants' households. The surplus products could be marketed by country consumers' co-operative societies, and through the hotel industry. The author of the report, taking as his model the organisations in the northern countries, puts forward a plan of organisation for the encouragement of home handicrafts in Switzerland.

Factory Inspection in India in 1927

A recent publication of the Government of India [1] gives interesting statistical details about the working of the Factories Act in 1927. The total number of factories rose from 7,251 in 1926 to 7,515 in 1927; out of the latter figure, 160 were small establishments to which the provisions of the Factory Act were extended by Provincial Government notifications in 1927, as against 122 in 1926. No such small establishments have been notified by the Government of Burma, though there are about 300 such factories in the Province, as the inspection staff there is not large enough to deal with any additional

[1] GOVERNMENT OF INDIA: *Statistics of Factories subject to the Indian Factories Act (XII of 1911) for the Year ending 31 December 1927, together with a Note on the Working of the Factories Act during the Year.* Calcutta, Central Publication Branch, 1928.

work that may be thrown upon them ; but it is stated that the problem is now under the consideration of the Government.

Out of the 7,515 factories working in the year 310 were owned by Government or Local Funds ; of the others 417 were textile factories, 539 engineering concerns, 1,459 rice mills, 868 tea factories, 211 oil mills, 280 printing and book-binding establishments, 207 saw mills, and 2,244 cotton gins and jute presses. The Bombay Presidency had 1,426 factories, followed by the Madras Presidency with 1,301, Bengal with 1,297, Burma with 940, and the Central Provinces with 704. Assam, which is the main home of the tea industry, had 591 factories, and the Punjab only 546. The other Provinces do not appear to have developed any considerable industrial activity.

The percentage of factories inspected during the year rose from 88 in 1926 to 89, the total number of factories inspected being 6,692, as against 6,399 in 1926. As in previous years the largest number of uninspected factories were in Assam and Bengal, and it is stated that there are special difficulties connected with the application of the Act to the tea-garden factories. In Behar and Orissa also, owing to the absence of an inspector on leave, the number of uninspected factories rose from 50 in 1926 to 140 in 1927.

The number of convictions in 1927 under the Factories Act was 1,420, but there are continued complaints as to the inadequacy of the fines imposed on factory managers convicted of offences under the Act. Some of the provincial reports rightly point out that inadequate fines, instead of having a deterrent effect, encourage the offenders to defy the law with profit to themselves and to pay willingly the light penalties imposed on them.

The total factory population has now risen from 1,518,391 in 1926 to 1,533,382 in 1927. In 1923, the figure was 1,409,173. The Government and Local Fund factories employed 144,573 persons, of whom 72,746 were in railway workshops, 23,603 in ordnance factories, and 13,399 in printing presses.

Of the other establishments, cotton (spinning and weaving and other) factories employed 342,315 ; jute mills 332,119 ; general engineering works 33,622 ; railway workshops 73,686 ; shipbuilding and engineering 24,292 ; iron and steel smelting and steel rolling mills 34,571 ; rice mills 71,693 ; tea 63,359 ; printing and book-binding 22,750 ; cotton ginning and baling 143,306, and jute presses 35,471. Bengal had the largest factory population of any Province (559,759), followed by the Bombay Presidency (381,865), the Madras Presidency (134,074), and Burma (101,353), the other Provinces having each fewer than 100,000 factory workers. Substantial increases on the past year's figures were recorded both in Bengal, where, in spite of a further reduction of the numbers employed in the jute mills, there was increasing activity in iron and steel smelting works and allied engineering concerns, and in Madras, where the number of factories increased from 1,198 in 1926 to 1,301 in 1927.

Of the total number employed in factories, 1,222,662 were men, 253,158 women, 48,028 boys, and 9,534 girls. In the case of boys and girls there was a slight fall from the figures of 1926 ; but the number of women rose from 249,669 in 1926 to 253,158 in 1927. The cotton mills employed 64,121 and the jute mills 54,219 women. There was a

very substantial increase in the number of women in the Madras factories, principally in the coffee-curing works, coir rope works and in tea, cashew, and ground-nut factories. The decrease in the number of children is attributed to the restrictions imposed by the Factory Act and to the increasing efficiency of the arrangements for the certification of children.

As regards working hours for men, 27 per cent. of the factories had a 48-hour week, 14 per cent. had a working week of 54 hours or less, and 59 per cent. had a longer working week. For women, the corresponding percentages were 31, 13, and 56. The percentage of factories which limit the hours of work of children to 30 in the week increased from 30 in 1926 to 36 in 1927. The number of factories which were exempted from one or other of the sections of the Act showed a slight increase in the year (4,791 in 1927 as against 4,601 in 1926), but the local Governments are examining the question of exemptions at the desire of the central Government. In a number of cases, where it has not been found practicable to withdraw previous exemptions, suitable conditions are being imposed to secure as far as possible compensatory benefits for the employees.

Reported accidents of all kinds rose from 14,866 in 1926 to 15,711 in 1927, though the number of fatal accidents fell from 270 to 242. Bombay and Bengal are principally responsible for this large increase, which is at any rate partly accounted for by a better system of reporting. The progressive increase of accidents in the iron and steel industry since 1923 is now the subject of special investigation. The Madras and the United Provinces factory reports trace the accidents to the carelessness and ignorance of the operatives, whereas the Punjab and Burma reports attribute them to "a lamentable disregard on the part of some factory owners for the essential and oft-repeated precautions against accidents" and to "lack of supervision and indulgence in unsafe practices". Progress in the fencing of dangerous machinery is being maintained and managements are encouraged to give attention to safety measures. The value of safety posters as an aid in the reduction of accidents is gaining increasing recognition, particularly in the railway workshops, and it is interesting to find that the Millowners' Mutual Assurance Association in Bombay has agreed to bear the cost of the preparation of some of these posters for the textile industry.

There was no marked advance in welfare work during the year, and the factory owners in some Provinces have been unable to incur any considerable expenditure for this purpose owing to the present state of trade depression. Bombay, however, maintains the progress made in previous years, and six additional crèches were opened during the year in the Bombay mills for the infants of women workers. Some Ahmedabad mills have opened new hospitals and dispensaries, and the treatment provided for the operatives is on a liberal scale.

Little progress is reported in the matter of housing, except in the Government of India's Security Printing Press at Nasik Road, where nearly 3,000 persons are housed in comfort. In Bombay and Ahmedabad the millowners are rapidly recognising the need of efficient ventilating and cooling arrangements to neutralise the trying climatic conditions.

STATISTICS

Recent Wage Changes in Various Countries[1]

Canada

The following tables have been prepared from information published annually by the Department of Labour in Supplements to the Canadian *Labour Gazette*. In most cases figures are given for 1913 or 1914 and for the period 1924-1928. Table I gives index numbers of nominal wages rates in the principal branches of industry in Canada, together with index numbers of real wages calculated by the International Labour Office with the help of the corresponding cost-of-living index numbers. Tables II, III, and IV give nominal wage rates in the principal localities of important categories of workers employed in coal mining, the metal, building, and printing trades, electric street railways, agriculture, and municipal services.

It will be seen from table I that from 1924 to 1925 nominal wages in general remained fairly stable, except for workers employed in coal mining, whose wages in 1925 showed a decrease of about 13 per cent., and those of workers engaged in logging and sawmilling, which fell slightly. The wages of unskilled factory workers, however, rose a little. Since 1925 wages in almost all the occupations considered show a slight upward tendency, which is especially marked in the case of the building trades, where in 1928 it amounted to about 9 per cent. as compared with 1924. Wages of workers in the coal-mining industry and of skilled factory workers alone remained unchanged. As the cost of living varied very little during the period under consideration, the movement of real wages followed that of nominal wages. The increase at the end of 1928 was from 15 to 25 per cent. as compared with 1913, except for workers in the coal-mining industry, whose real wage increase was about 7 per cent.

Table II gives detailed information concerning nominal wage rates in coal mining, the metal, building, and printing trades, and electric street railways. These figures confirm the fluctuations in nominal wages shown in table I. It will be noticed that the rates vary considerably from one locality to another. Among the six towns included in this table, the highest wages are found in Vancouver and the lowest in Halifax.

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[1] For previous articles in this series cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVII, No. 5, May 1928 (Great Britain); No. 6, June (France, Belgium); Vol. XVIII, No. 1, July (Denmark, Norway, Sweden); No. 2, Aug. (Spain); No. 3, Sept. (Netherlands, Switzerland); Nos. 4-5, Oct.-Nov. (Germany); No. 6, Dec. (Austria, Poland); Vol. XIX, No. 1, Jan. 1929 (Czechoslovakia, Hungary); No. 2, Feb. (United States); No. 3, March (Australia, New Zealand, Union of South Africa); No. 4, April (Italy).

Table III gives, for each province and for the country as a whole, average monthly and yearly wage rates of agricultural workers of both sexes in 1914 and from 1923 to 1927, together with corresponding index numbers. These statistics show a slight upward trend in recent years. The increase as compared with wages in 1914 is more marked in the case of women than men. It will also be noticed that, compared with 1914, there have been proportionally larger increases in yearly wages than in monthly wages. The wage rates of agricultural workers also vary considerably from one province to another ; they are highest in the west.

Table IV gives wage rates and corresponding index numbers for certain classes of municipal workers in 1920 and 1924-1928. It will be seen that since 1924 the level of wages for the classes considered has varied very little. Comparison of the wages for 1920 with those for 1928 shows that the wage movement during the period under review has in general been more favourable for firemen and policemen than for labourers.

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF NOMINAL AND REAL WAGE RATES OF VARIOUS CATEGORIES OF WORKERS IN CANADA, 1924-1928 [1]

(Base : 1913 = 100)

Industry	Index numbers of nominal wage rates					Index numbers of real wages				
	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
Building trades	169.7	170.4	172.1	179.3	185.6	109.5	109.6	108.9	114.9	119.4
Metal trades	175.5	175.4	177.4	178.1	180.1	114.0	112.4	113.7	114.9	114.7
Printing trades	191.9	192.8	193.3	195.0	198.3	124.6	123.6	123.9	125.8	126.3
Electric street railways	186.4	187.8	188.4	189.9	194.1	121.0	120.4	120.8	122.5	123.6
Steam railways	186.4	186.4	186.4	198.4	198.4	121.0	119.6	119.6	128.0	126.4
Coal mining	192.4	167.6	167.4	167.9	168.9	124.9	107.4	107.3	108.3	107.6
Average for above industries	183.7	179.7	180.5	184.3	187.6	119.3	115.2	115.7	118.9	119.5
Miscellaneous factory trades	197.6	195.5	196.7	199.4	200.9	128.3	125.3	126.1	128.6	128.0
Common factory labour	183.2	186.3	187.3	187.7	187.1	119.0	119.5	120.1	121.1	119.2
Logging and sawmilling	183.1	178.7	180.8	182.8	184.3	118.9	114.6	115.9	117.3	117.4

[1] CANADA, DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR : *Wages and Hours of Labour in Canada*, Report No. 12 (1920-1928). The index numbers of real wages have been calculated by the International Labour Office, using the cost-of-living index number for September in each year, except in the case of the building trades, for which the average of the cost-of-living index numbers for March and June has been taken. These indexes, as given in the *Labour Gazette* for January 1929, are as follows for the second quarter and the month of September respectively in each year : for 1924, 155 and 154 ; for 1925, 155.5 and 156 ; for 1926, 158 and 156 ; for 1927, 156 and 155 ; and for 1928, 155.5 and 157.

TABLE II. AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF VARIOUS CATEGORIES OF WORKERS IN THE COAL-MINING, METAL, BUILDING, AND PRINTING TRADES, AND ON ELECTRIC STREET RAILWAYS, IN VARIOUS PARTS OF CANADA, 1913 AND 1924-1928 [1]

Occupation and locality	1913	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
	$	$	$	$	$	$
Coal mining [2]:						
Nova Scotia:						
Contract miners [3]	18.42	41.88	36.48	37.50	39.72	39.84
Drivers	11.16	21.60	21.60	21.60	21.60	21.60
Surface labourers	9.42	19.50	19.50	19.50	19.50	19.50
Alberta:						
Contract miners	30.00	50.76	47.52	42.60	46.44	47.10
Drivers	18.18	37.86	28.80	29.85	29.85	30.30
Surface labourers	14.82	34.56	24.60	24.60	24.60	25.68
Vancouver Island [4]:						
Contract miners	30.18	42.54	40.68	41.94	40.56	40.68
Drivers	17.16	27.48	24.78	24.78	24.78	24.78
Surface labourers	16.98	24.66	22.56	22.56	22.56	22.56
Metal trades:						
Blacksmiths:						
Halifax	13.38	28.20	28.20	28.20	28.20	28.20
Montreal	16.50	31.24	31.24	31.24	31.38	33.14
Ottawa	16.50	30.25	27.26	27.26	30.00	30.00
Toronto	16.80	27.03	27.03	27.03	28.20	28.20
Winnipeg	19.25	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00	35.00
Vancouver	22.25	34.38	34.93	35.75	35.75	35.75
Iron moulders:						
Halifax	15.75	29.60	29.60	29.60	29.60	29.60
Montreal	19.50	30.38	30.38	32.06	32.06	32.06
Ottawa	18.09	25.85	27.50	27.03	27.03	27.03
Toronto	16.50	30.62	29.70	29.70	30.44	30.44
Winnipeg	20.62	29.69	29.69	29.69	29.69	30.32
Vancouver	22.25	33.55	33.55	34.38	34.38	34.38
Machinists:						
Halifax	17.25	28.20	28.20	28.20	28.20	28.20
Montreal	16.50	33.15	32.50	32.50	32.50	31.88
Ottawa	16.54	27.03	27.03	27.03	28.20	28.20
Toronto	16.50	29.40	29.40	29.40	29.40	29.40
Winnipeg	23.00	32.50	32.50	33.25	33.25	33.50
Vancouver	20.00	33.00	33.55	34.38	34.38	34.65
Building trades:						
Bricklayers:						
Halifax	21.60	39.60	39.60	39.60	39.60	39.60
Montreal	29.70	47.00	47.00	50.00	56.25	52.88
Ottawa	24.20	48.40	48.40	48.40	52.80	52.80
Toronto	24.20	55.00	49.50	49.50	55.00	55.00
Winnipeg	33.60	51.70	55.00	59.40	59.40	61.60
Vancouver	33.00	49.50	49.50	49.50	50.00	50.00

[1] See notes at end of table.

TABLE II (*cont.*)

Occupation and locality	1913	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
	$	$	$	$	$	$
Building trades *(continued)* :						
Carpenters :						
Halifax	18.90	25.08	25.08	25.08	26.40	29.04
Montreal	22.68	36.40	36.40	36.40	36.40	37.70
Ottawa	17.50	33.00	33.00	33.00	37.40	37.40
Toronto	19.80	37.40	37.40	37.40	39.60	44.00
Winnipeg	23.75	37.40	37.40	44.00	44.00	46.20
Vancouver	23.43	37.13	38.50	41.25	41.25	44.00
Builders' labourers :						
Halifax	13.50	15.93	15.93	17.15	17.15	17.15
Montreal	16.20	20.63	19.25	19.25	19.25	20.63
Ottawa	14.10	22.33	23.28	23.28	23.28	23.28
Toronto	13.20	27.30	26.00	26.00	26.00	27.30
Winnipeg	16.50	24.75	23.38	24.75	24.75	23.40
Vancouver	19.25	22.28	22.28	22.28	24.75	24.75
Printing trades [5] :						
Compositors (hand and machine) :						
Halifax	16.00	32.00	32.00	32.00	32.00	32.00
Montreal	20.00	40.00	40.00	40.00	40.00	40.00
Ottawa	17.00	41.00	41.00	42.00	43.00	43.00
Toronto	21.00	41.00	41.50	42.50	43.50	45.50
Winnipeg	26.00	42.32	42.32	44.00	45.00	46.00
Vancouver	30.00	45.00	45.00	45.00	48.00	48.00
Pressmen [6] :						
Halifax	16.00	31.00	31.00	31.00	31.00	31.00
Montreal	17.00	36.00	36.00	36.00	36.00	36.00
Ottawa	18.50	35.00	35.00	36.50	37.50	37.50
Toronto	20.00	36.00	36.00	36.00	36.00	38.00
Winnipeg	21.00	39.60	39.60	39.60	39.60	39.60
Vancouver	24.00	42.00	42.00	42.00	42.00	43.50
Electric street railways [7] :						
Conductors and motormen :						
Halifax	15.00	28.35	28.35	28.35	31.50	33.00
Montreal	15.00	35.70	35.70	35.70	35.70	35.70
Ottawa	15.00	26.46	27.00	27.00	27.00	27.00
Toronto	16.10	28.80	28.80	28.80	28.80	28.80
Winnipeg	18.36	28.00	28.00	28.50	29.00	29.50
Vancouver	18.90	29.76	29.76	29.76	30.24	30.24

[1] *Wages and Hours of Labour in Canada*, Report No. 1 (1901-1920) and Report No. 12 (1920-1928). Unless otherwise stated, the weekly rates have been calculated by multiplying hourly rates (in certain cases, the average of two figures) by the average number of hours per week. For printing, the figures given have been taken directly from the reports referred to.

[2] Daily wages multiplied by 6. [3] Average earnings of workers on contract. [4] Wages of Chinese workers not included. [5] Newspaper offices. [6] Job offices. [7] Maximum rates.

TABLE III. *(a)* AVERAGE MONTHLY WAGES AND CORRESPONDING INDEX NUMBERS AND *(b)* AVERAGE YEARLY WAGES AND CORRESPONDING INDEX NUMBERS OF AGRICULTURAL WORKERS IN CANADA, 1914 AND 1923-1927 [1]

Province and group of workers	Average nominal wages						Index numbers of average nominal wages (1914 = 100)				
	1914	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927
	(a) Monthly wages in summer [2]										
Prince Edward Island	$	$	$	$	$	$					
Males	25	43	43	47	47	46	172	172	188	188	184
Females	13	28	28	31	30	31	215	215	238	231	238
Nova Scotia											
Males	31	56	55	56	54	55	181	177	181	174	177
Females	15	32	30	33	32	30	213	200	220	213	200
New Brunswick											
Males	32	59	53	54	57	57	184	166	169	178	178
Females	15	32	31	31	31	32	213	207	207	207	213
Quebec											
Males	34	59	56	56	57	58	174	165	165	168	171
Females	16	32	31	32	32	33	200	194	200	200	206
Ontario											
Males	32	59	57	54	58	59	184	178	169	181	184
Females	17	39	38	39	39	38	229	224	229	229	224
Manitoba											
Males	39	62	59	60	60	60	159	151	154	154	154
Females	22	42	40	40	40	40	191	182	182	182	182
Saskatchewan											
Males	41	65	66	70	67	67	159	161	171	163	163
Females	23	44	44	43	45	45	191	191	187	196	196
Alberta											
Males	40	70	66	68	69	70	175	165	170	173	175
Females	24	48	45	49	47	49	200	188	204	196	204
British Columbia											
Males	48	76	75	72	76	78	158	156	150	158	163
Females	31	53	50	47	50	51	171	161	152	161	165
Canada (average)											
Males	36	61	62	63	64	64	169	172	175	178	178
Females	19	32	42	41	42	42	205	221	216	221	221
	(b) Yearly wages [3]										
Prince Edward Island	$	$	$	$	$	$					
Males	221	472	441	469	484	472	214	200	212	219	214
Females	136	309	323	313	325	334	227	238	230	239	245
Nova Scotia											
Males	301	555	571	568	588	562	184	190	189	195	187
Females	155	340	336	360	369	340	219	217	232	238	219
New Brunswick											
Males	302	615	538	562	529	588	204	178	186	175	195
Females	165	364	332	361	319	347	221	201	219	193	210
Quebec											
Males	296	559	521	536	547	537	189	176	181	185	181
Females	152	334	317	331	326	329	220	209	218	214	216
Ontario											
Males	297	597	579	548	583	605	201	195	184	196	204
Females	172	427	413	409	419	445	248	240	238	244	259
Manitoba											
Males	364	631	592	617	614	612	173	162	170	169	168
Females	226	459	430	436	438	439	203	190	192	194	194
Saskatchewan											
Males	366	652	663	664	678	692	178	181	181	185	189
Females	235	484	487	491	498	496	206	207	209	212	211
Alberta											
Males	365	704	665	701	701	736	193	182	192	192	202
Females	236	606	494	521	520	544	214	209	221	220	231
British Columbia											
Males	460	775	805	770	767	804	168	175	167	167	175
Females	324	640	584	514	532	556	198	180	159	164	172
Canada (average)											
Males	323	611	636	641	639	658	189	197	198	198	204
Females	189	422	461	462	455	467	223	244	244	241	247

[1] *Wages and Hours of Labour in Canada*, Report No. 7 (1920-1924) and Report No. 12 (1920 1928). These figures are based on estimates made by crop correspondents of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics.
[2] Including the estimated value of board and lodging.

TABLE IV. NOMINAL WAGE RATES AND CORRESPONDING INDEX NUMBERS OF MUNICIPAL WORKERS IN SIX CANADIAN TOWNS, 1920 AND 1924-1928 [1]

Occupation and locality	Nominal wage rates						Index numbers of nominal wages (1920 = 100)				
	1920	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
	$	$	$	$	$	$					
Firemen (per year) [2]											
Halifax	1,258	1,404	1,404	1,333	1,333	1,404	112	112	106	106	112
Montreal	1,464	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,700	116	116	116	116	116
Ottawa	1,500	1,500	1,600	1,600	1,751	1,751	100	107	107	117	117
Toronto	1,812	1,812	1,812	1,812	1,812	1,950	100	100	100	100	108
Winnipeg	1,740	1,656	1,656	1,656	1,656	1,656	95	95	95	95	95
Vancouver	1,800	1,800	1,800	1,800	1,800	1,800	100	100	100	100	100
Policemen (per year) [2]											
Halifax	1,300	1,330	1,330	1,330	1,330	1,400	102	102	102	102	108
Montreal	1,464	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,700	116	116	116	116	116
Ottawa	1,630	1,725	1,725	1,725	1,912	1,912	106	106	106	117	117
Toronto	1,950	1,950	1,950	1,950	1,950	1,950	100	100	100	100	100
Winnipeg	1,860	1,776	1,776	1,776	1,776	1,776	95	95	95	95	95
Vancouver	1,800	1,890	1,890	1,890	1,890	1,890	105	105	105	105	105
Labourers (per week) [3]											
Halifax	21.60	18.90	18.90	18.90	18.90	—	88	88	88	88	—
Montreal	22.50	22.50	22.50	22.50	22.50	24.00	100	100	100	100	107
Ottawa	25.52	22 00	22.00	22.00	22.00	22.00	86	86	86	86	86
Toronto	26.40	26.40	26.40	26.40	26.40	26.40	100	100	100	100	100
Winnipeg	32.40	25.52	23.59	23.59	23.59	24.05	79	73	73	73	74
Vancouver	27.66	23.75	23.75	23.75	24.44	23.38	86	86	86	88	85

[1] *Wages and Hours of Labour in Canada*, Report No. 10 (1920-1926) and Report No. 12 (1920-1928).

[2] Maximum rates.

[3] Weekly rates calculated by multiplying the hourly rates (in certain cases, the average of two figures) by the number (in certain cases, the average number) of hours per week.

Employment and Unemployment

Table I giving unemployment statistics shows for certain countries the percentage of workers unemployed. In some cases these percentages are based on data compiled by the trade unions in respect of their members, while in other cases they refer to the workers covered by unemployment insurance laws. For some countries for which no such data are available information is given as to the numbers registered at various dates at the employment exchanges as unemployed or the number of unemployed workers who have received assistance. Table II gives index numbers of employment for certain countries.

In the *Review* for July 1924 and later months an outline was given of the methods by which the statistics given in the tables are compiled, together with particulars of the original sources in which they are published.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany					Australia		Belgium			
	Trade unionists				Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies			
	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed			Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.				Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1928 March	383,224	9.2	155,797	3.7	1,121,150	45,638	10.7	5,294	0.8	17,108	2.7
April	295,135	6.9	180,712	4.2	729,329	*	*	4,922	0.8	17,769	2.8
May	270,103	6.3	215,759	5.0	629,470	*	*	4,062	0.7	22,574	3.6
June	268,443	6.2	255,090	5.9	610,687	46,656	11.2	3,709	0.6	19,115	3.0
July	273,696	6.3	283,562	6.5	564,064	*	*	4,471	0.7	23,768	3.8
Aug.	288,375	6.5	312,051	7.1	574,475	*	*	3,397	0.5	23,888	3.8
Sept.	293,691	6.6	303,466	6.9	577,093	47,745	11.4	3,464	0.6	20,561	3.3
Oct.	325,293	7.3	303,737	6.8	670,997	*	*	3,957	0.6	22,458	3.5
Nov.	427,516	9.5	339,461	7.6	1,029,658	*	*	3,563	0.6	13,915	2.2
Dec.	748,760	16.7	336,270	7.5	1,702,342	42,637	9.9	11,988	1.9	28,218	4.5
1929 Jan.	874,050	19.4	391,970	8.7	1,918,106	*	*	22,657	3.5	24,945	3.9
Feb.	1,015,843	22.3	407,128	8.9	1,518,710	*	*	28,685[1]	4.7[1]	41,728[1]	6.8[1]
March	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	4,548,946				*	428,970		641,681[1]			

[1] Provisional figures.
The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Austria	Canada		Denmark		Estonia	United States	Finland
	Compulsory insurance	Trade unionists		Trade union unemployment funds		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists	Number of unemployed registered
	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.		Percentage unemployed	
1928 March	193,449	11,965	6.5	61,600[1]	21.3	3,134	18	2,139
April	154,817	9,573	5.2	42,243[1]	16.6	2,162	16	1,482
May	130,393	6,657	3.7	39,117[1]	14.0	1,470	13	868
June	118,737	5,800	3.2	37,503[1]	13.5	883	11	811
July	115,211	4,500[1]	2.5	37,037[1]	13.6	486	12	762
Aug.	113,851	4,274	2.4	35,600[1]	13.0	467	9	857
Sept.	112,595	4,068	2.2	33,100[1]	12.2	706	10	946
Oct.	112,557	5,705	3.1	40,100[1]	14.5	1,561	9	1,600
Nov.	155,235	7,742	4.2	47,700[1]	17.7	4,369	10	3,045
Dec.	237,661	12,553	6.6	67,850[1]	28.4	7,770	13	2,868
1929 Jan.	245,984	11,850	6.3	74,900[1]	27.6	6,329	15	4,731
Feb.	264,215	—	—	81,600[1]	30.0	4,624	15	4,155
March	—	—	—	63,400[1]	23.3	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	188,152		272,119		*	270,000	*

Date (end of month)	France	Great Britain and Northern Ireland				Hungary			Irish Free State	
	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Compulsory insurance				Trade unionists			Compulsory insurance	
		Wholly unemployed		Temporary stoppages		Christian	Social-Democratic			
		Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1928 March	10,473	903,805	7.7	223,817	1.9	1,054	15,194	10.0	*	*
April	7,273	898,019	7.6	222,729	2.0	1,016	14,027	9.3	*	*
May	3,746	893,304	7.6	274,705	2.3	955	13,275	8.7	26,449	10.8
June	1,659	917,726	7.8	355,634	3.0	1,001	12,860	8.5	*	*
July	1,095	958,567	8.1	418,464	3.6	875	12,242	8.1	*	*
Aug.	1,010	979,926	8.3	395,293	3.4	832	12,523	8.3	22,843	9.3
Sept.	562	1,019,179	8.6	335,832	2.9	818	12,134	8.0	*	*
Oct.	453	1,059,429	8.9	344,482	2.9	1,003	12,212	8.1	*	*
Nov.	503	1,105,974	9.3	347,243	2.9	841	12,313	8.0	27,724	9.9
Dec.	895	1,083,207	9.1	250,404	2.1	825	14,362	9.6	*	*
1929 Jan.	1,604	1,169,633	9.8	296,104	2.5	691	16,421	10.9	*	*
Feb.	3,527	1,161,184	9.8	292,680	2.4	825	18,165	12.1	31,111	11.1
March	1,078	1,003,575	8,4	200,210	1.7	—	—	—	*	*
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	11,881,500				*	150,100[1]		280,905	

[1] Approximate figures.

The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Italy		Latvia	Norway			New Zealand		Netherlands	
	Number of unemployed registered		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists (10 unions)		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies	
	Wholly unemployed	Partially unemployed		Number unemployed	Per cent.		Number unemployed	Per cent	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1928 March	411,785	47,036	5,570	8,130	24.4	26,692	*	*	19,740	6.3
April	356,795	45,833	2,950	7,654	28.8	24,719	*	*	15,620	5.0
May	306,629	45,569	1,295	—	18.0	19,871	6,478	11.5	14,083	4.4
June	247,021	30,296	1,223	4,925	14.4	16,747	*	*	14,302	4.4
July	234,210	27,590	928	4,674	13.6	15,365	*	*	17,100	5.3
Aug.	248,100	24,319	965	4,834	13.9	15,817	6,298	11.3	16,670	5.2
Sept.	268,883	28,746	1,914	5,413	15.5	17,180	*	*	15,697	4.7
Oct.	282,379	25,639	5,179	5,677	16.1	20,464	*	*	15.542	4.8
Nov.	321,123	24,814	9,184	6,171	17.4	23,033	5,523	10.0	20,296	6.2
Dec.	363,551	27,278	14,030	7,810	22,1	24,223	*	*	38,116	11.5
1929 Jan.	461,889	16,655	12,856	7,915	22,2	24,393	*	*	61,784	10,9
Feb.	489,347	15,854	10,909	—	—	23,821	—	—	69,154[1]	20,9[1]
March	293,277	15,846	—	—	—	24,584	*	*	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*		*	35,591		*	55,343		331,492[1]	

Date (end of month)	Poland	Russia	Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom	Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia	
				Trade unionists		Unemployment funds		Trade union insurance funds	
	Number unemployed registered	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number unemployed registered	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Per cent. unemployed		Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Per cent.
						Wholly	Partially		
1928 March	167,676	1,576,400	7,582	36,722	13.3	1.9	1.0	17,734	1.6
April	153,016	1,598,700	9,123	32,218	11.7	*	*	16,683	1.4
May	135,542	1,571,060	6,820	22,978	8.2	*	*	16,556	1.4
June	116,247	1,471,320	5,696	21,257	7.6	1.2	0.8	13,468	1.2
July	100,487	1,339,810	4,696	20,238	7.4	*	*	13,627	1.2
Aug.	90,976	1,344,000	4,106	19,826	7.1	*	*	15,588	1.4
Sept.	82,642	1,364,600	3,587	22,159	7.6	1.1	1.0	16,304	1.5
Oct.	79,478	1,475,000	3,744	27,008	9.1	*	*	13,228	1.1
Nov.	97,414	1,561,000	4,485	32,220	10.8	*	*	12,532	1.1
Dec.	128,144	—	5,233	49,633	17.2	4.0	1.4	19,698	1.7
1929 Jan.	161,189	1,665,300	—	43,424	14.9	*	*	31,357	2.7
Feb.	178,273	—	—	44,254	14.6	*	*	—	—
March	182,638[2]	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	*	*	302,531		262,538		1,158,700	

[1] Provisional figures.

[2] Middle of the month.

The sign * signifies " no figures published ".

The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany[1]	Canada[1]	Estonia[1]	United States	Switzerland
	Index number of employment				
	Membership of sickness funds on 1 Jan. 1925 = 100	Number employed on 17 Jan. 1920 = 100	Number employed on 1 Jan. 1927 = 100	Average number employed in 1926 = 100	Number employed in March 1925 = 100
1928 March	105.8	101.1	110.0	93.7	106.7
April	109.6	105.5	111.7	93.3	*
May	111.8	112.4	119.1	93.0	*
June	112.3	116.3	118.7	93.1	110.1
July	112.4	119.9	120.4	92.2	*
Aug.	112.4	119.5	116.9	93.6	*
Sept.	112.1	118.9	112.1	95.0	112
Oct.	111.3	119.1	111.8	95.9	*
Nov.	108.6	116.7	110.3	95.4	*
Dec.	102.0	109.1[2]	107.5	95.9	111
1929 Jan.	68.7	110.5	112.1	95.2	*
Feb.	—	111.4	114.2	97.4	*
March	—	—	—	98.6	—
Number of persons on which latest figures are based	*	944,681	39,131	4,815,598	220,819

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month.
[2] From 1 January 1929 onward the number employed in 1926 = 100.
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

Index Numbers of the Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Tables I to V give for a number of countries index numbers of the cost of living, food, clothing, heating and lighting, and rent. Notes on the sources and methods of compilation of the statistics were given in the *Review* for July 1924 and later months.

Canada: *Prices and Price Indexes*, January 1929 (published by the Canadian Department of Trade and Commerce, Dominion Bureau of Statistics).

The index numbers of retail prices, rents, and costs of services hitherto calculated on the 1913 base have been revised and recalculated on the base 1926 = 100. This is in accordance with the general policy of the Bureau in revising the basis of index number calculations. These index numbers are so constructed as to show the trend of the cost of living for an average middle-class family, with an expenditure of about $2,500 per annum. In revising the data 16 items were added to the clothing group. Rental data were changed to include apartments and flats as well as houses, and higher grades of dwellings than formerly were included. Owing to the increasing use of coke, it was added to the fuel and lighting group. Miscellaneous items were increased from 71 to 130, the additions including dishes, furniture, hardware, insurance, books and education, dentists' services, cost of motor operation and supplies. In all, the index includes 245 separate items or groups of items, as compared with 161 in the old index.

TABLE I. COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria	Belgium [1]	Bulgaria	Canada [2]	Chile [3]	Denmark	Danzig	Egypt	Estonia [4]
Towns and localities	9	72	6	Vienna	59	12	60	Santiago	100	Danzig	Cairo	Tallinn
1928 March	132	151	147	107	203	2791	99	100	*	141	151	111
April	133	151	*	107	204	2841	99	102	176	139	159	113
May	133	151	*	107	202	2857	98	104	*	140	149	113
June	132	151	148	109	204	2818	98	105	*	140	149	112
July	131	153	*	108	205	2861	98	106	176	141	151	116
Aug.	131	154	*	108	206	2742	99	107	*	141	153	114
Sept.	131	152	—	109	209	2757	99	111	*	140	153	112
Oct.	131	152	*	109	212	2796	100	111	172	140	155	112
Nov.	131	152	*	109	217	2826	100	117	*	140	155	113
Dec.	131	153	—	109	216	2816	100	110	*	142	154	113
1929 Jan.	131	153	*	109	216	—	100	103	173	142	152	117
Feb.	131	154	*	111	217	—	99	—	*	143	—	119
March	—	157	—	110	215	—	—	—	*	—	—	112

Country	United States [3]	Finland	France [4]	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [3]	India	Dutch Indies [3]	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania [3]
Towns and localities	32	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay		105	Milan	Riga	84
1928 March	*	1214	*	164	153	114	144	148	*	531	105	135
April	*	1212	*	164	153	114	147	146	170	531	106	134
May	*	1207	519	165	153	117	146	145	*	526	107	136
June	170	1219	*	165	152	118	147	144	*	530	109	136
July	*	1236	*	165	148	118	146	145	173	526	113	139
Aug.	*	1258	519	165	146	120	145	147	*	522	120	144
Sept.	*	1249	*	166	145	121	146	150	*	526	113	137
Oct.	*	1254	*	167	148	119	146	151	176	528	114	136
Nov.	*	1262	531	168	148	118	147	153	*	534	114	136
Dec.	171	1260	*	167	146	118	148	154	*	541	115	137
1929 Jan.	*	1242	*	165	148	118	148	155	177	541	120	136
Feb.	*	1232	547	166	150	121	149	—	*	544	121	137
March	*	1229	*	162	—	—	149	—	*	—	—	—

Country	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands [5]	Peru [3]	Poland	Rumania	Russia [3]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Luxemburg	31	4	Amsterdam	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country	229	49	33	Prague
1928 March	795	193	*	169	176	119	4061	203	171	160	730
April	794	193	*	*	176	121	4085	206	*	160	734
May	794	193	162	*	176	121	4090	206	*	160	736
June	805	193	*	170	177	122	4099	210	173	161	734
July	813	193	*	*	175	123	4086	210	*	161	746
Aug.	821	192	161	*	175	122	4100	207	*	161	754
Sept.	831	185	*	169	175	122	4135	201	172	161	749
Oct.	836	184	*	*	169	123	4206	204[7]	*	162	726
Nov.	844	184	163	*	168	125	4230	209	*	162	721
Dec.	845	183	*	168	168	125	4237	209	170	162	725
1929 Jan.	848	181	*	*	167	124	4240	210	*	161	735[8]
Feb.	859	182	161	*	170	128	4249	—	*	161	—
March	852	180	*	—	173	125	—	—	171	161	—

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1926 = 100. [3] 1913 = 100. [4] Quarterly averages. [5] 1911-1913 = 100. [6] Corrected series taking into account the weighted average of the rents of new and of old houses. [7] New series. [8] New series; base: March 1928 = 100. The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria	Belgium [1]	Bulgaria	Canada [2]	Denmark	Egypt	Spain	Estonia [3]
Towns and localities	9	72	30	Vienna	59	12	60	100	Cairo	Madrid	Tallinn
1928 March	118	151	153	116	201	2790	98	*	139	176	117
April	119	151	154	117	202	2851	98	152	140	174	121
May	120	151	154	117	199	2869	96	*	139	171	121
June	118	152	154	122	203	2830	96	*	140	172	120
July	116	154	152	119	204	2878	97	153	144	173	127
Aug.	115	156	150	120	206	2747	99	*	143	174	124
Sept.	115	153	150	120	208	2760	99	*	148	178	119
Oct.	115	152	150	120	213	2794	101	146	154	179	120
Nov.	115	152	150	120	219	2822	101	*	151	181	121
Dec.	115	153	152	119	218	2809	101	*	150	187	120
1929 Jan.	115	153	—	120	217	—	100	147	—	184	128
Feb.	115	156	—	123	217	—	99	*	—	183	132
March	—	159	—	121	216	—	—	*	—	—	136

Country	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [3]	India	Dutch Indies [3]	Irish Free State	Italy
Towns and localities	51	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay		105	Milan
1928 March	148	1123	524	155	143	124	140	150	*	516
April	149	1119	532	154	144	126	144	146	162	516
May	150	1113	546	156	145	130	142	145	*	513
June	149	1126	557	157	144	132	143	145	*	520
July	149	1155	547	156	138	131	142	146	166	513
Aug.	151	1191	540	156	134	133	141	147	*	506
Sept.	154	1174	544	157	132	133	142	148	*	513
Oct.	153	1183	566	159	138	129	142	149	171	515
Nov.	154	1194	585	160	137	127	144	151	*	526
Dec.	152	1186	596	159	133	126	145	152	*	539
1929 Jan.	—	1156	599	156	133	126	145	154	173	539
Feb.	—	1141	602	157	135	130	146	—	*	541
March	—	1135	607	150	—	—	146	—	*	—

Country	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Peru	Poland	Russia	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Riga	31	4	Lima	Warsaw	229	49	33	Prague
1928 March	138	171	145	152	140	205	152	157	838
April	139	171	144	152	142	210	153	156	844
May	139	172	146	154	142	211	154	156	847
June	144	171	147	155	143	218	156	156	843
July	147	173	147	152	144	218	156	157	858
Aug.	151	170	147	151	143	212	156	156	871
Sept.	155	164	147	151	142	208	154	157	861
Oct.	155	163	149	142	144	213	152	158	821
Nov.	161	161	150	142	148	219	152	158	813
Dec.	163	161	152	142	147	220	151	158	820
1929 Jan.	163	158	149	142	146	222	149	157	815
Feb.	—	157	—	147	153	—	149	157	—
March	—	158	—	153	146	—	151	156	—

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1926 = 100. [3] 1913 = 100.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Country	Germany	Austria	Belgium[1]	Canada[2]	Denmark	Spain	Estonia[3]	United States[3]	Finland	France[4]	Great Britain	Hungary[3]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Norway	New Zealand	Poland	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	72	Vienna	59	60	100	Madrid	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	31	4	Warsaw	49	33	Prague
TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1928 March	169	183	240	97	*	*	150	*	1043	*	218	135	153	*	591	169	*	169	184	162	1020
April	170	183	241	97	198	*	150	*	1043	*	220	135	155	200	591	*	*	169	*	166	1020
May	170	183	240	97	*	*	150	*	1044	581	220	134	156	*	566	*	146	169	*	166	1020
June	170	183	242	97	*	*	150	163	1048	*	220	134	158	*	559	169	*	169	185	166	1033
July	171	183	244	97	198	*	150	*	1048	*	220	134	159	206	561	*	*	169	*	166	1040
Aug.	171	183	243	98	*	*	150	*	1049	591	220	134	157	*	561	*	145	169	*	166	1040
Sept.	171	183	246	98	*	*	150	*	1052	*	220	134	156	*	561	168	*	169	186	166	1032
Oct.	171	183	247	98	198	*	150	*	1052	*	220	134	156	206	555	*	*	169	*	169	1026
Nov.	172	183	248	98	*	*	150	*	1054	591	220	134	158	*	558	*	144	169	*	169	1023
Dec.	173	183	250	98	*	*	150	162	1055	*	220	134	160	*	555	166	*	169	186	169	1023
1929 Jan	173	183	251	98	198	*	150	*	1055	*	220	134	160	206	555	*	*	169	*	169	1022
Feb.	—	183	252	—	*	*	150	*	1055	594	220	—	160	*	555	*	—	169	*	169	—
March	—	183	253	—	*	*	—	*	1055	*	220	—	159	*	—	—	*	169	185	169	—
TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1928 March	146	100	168	98	*	169	83	*	1438	*	170	122	145	*	407	167	*	115	166	139	819
April	145	99	168	97	190	171	81	*	1436	*	168	119	145	172	407	*	*	116	166	138	819
May	144	99	168	97	*	171	81	*	1434	504	170	119	158	*	407	*	179	120	165	137	819
June	144	99	170	96	*	171	81	177	1436	*	165	119	158	*	407	162	*	124	164	136	819
July	144	99	168	96	185	171	81	*	1423	*	165	122	158	168	407	*	*	121	164	136	819
Aug.	145	99	169	96	*	171	84	*	1421	510	165	121	151	*	407	*	179	121	—	135	819
Sept.	147	99	170	96	*	173	84	*	1429	*	170	127	144	*	407	169	*	123	162	135	842
Oct.	149	99	172	97	183	173	85	*	1426	*	170	129	144	173	407	*	*	130	160	136	842
Nov.	151	99	174	97	*	173	84	*	1441	515	170	129	143	*	408	*	178	135	160	136	842
Dec.	151	100	175	97	*	173	85	181	1452	*	170	126	143	*	408	—	*	137	159	136	842
1929 Jan.	151	100	175	97	185	174	85	*	1450	*	170-175	131	148	176	408	*	*	139	160	135	842
Feb.	—	103	175	—	*	173	85	*	1446	535	170-175	134	143	*	425	*	—	139	162	135	—
March	—	105	184	—	*	—	93	*	1456	*	170-175	—	143	*	—	—	*	140	165	135	—
TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1928 March	126	14	209	101	*	*	52	*	1411	*	151	75	172	*	400	179	*	53	199	174	261
April	126	14	209	101	193	*	52	*	1411	*	151	75	172	127	400	*	*	56	*	174	261
May	126	14	209	101	*	*	52	*	1411	275	151	80	172	*	400	*	189	56	*	177	261
June	126	14	209	101	*	*	52	158	1430	*	151	80	172	*	400	179	*	56	199	177	261
July	126	14	210	101	193	*	52	*	1430	*	151	80	172	128	401	*	*	58	*	177	278
Aug.	126	14	210	101	*	*	52	*	1430	300	151	85	172	*	401	*	190	58	*	177	278
Sept.	126	14	210	101	*	*	52	*	1430	*	151	85	172	*	401	179	*	58	199	177	278
Oct.	126	14	211	101	193	*	52	*	1430	*	150	85	172	127	408	*	*	58	*	177	278
Nov.	126	15	212	101	*	*	52	*	1430	300	152	86	172	*	408	*	190	58	*	177	278
Dec.	126	15	211	101	*	*	52	156	1430	*	152	86	172	*	408	179	*	58	199	177	278
1929 Jan.	126	15	222	101	193	*	52	*	1430	*	152	86	172	127	408	*	*	58	*	177	306
Feb.	—	15	223	—	*	*	52	*	1430	300	152	—	172	*	408	*	—	58	*	177	—
March	—	15	223	—	*	*	52	*	1430	*	152	—	172	*	—	—	*	58	200	177	—

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1926 = 100. [3] 1913 = 100. [4] Quarterly averages. The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Migration

Emigration from Denmark in 1928 [1]

The number of oversea emigrants from Denmark in 1928 was 7,699, a reduction of 300 as compared with 1927, but a rise of 1,900 as compared with 1926. The figure is somewhat smaller than for the years before the war, when on average 8,000-9,000 Danes left the country every year. At that time the majority of the emigrants went to the United States, but latterly, owing to the immigration restrictions in that country, Canada has become more and more important as a country of destination, and in 1928 more than half the emigrants left for Canada. On the other hand, fewer persons left for South America than in the immediately preceding years. Two-thirds of the emigrants were men and one-third women.

Emigration from Finland in 1928

The preliminary statistics for 1928 of the persons to whom passports were issued in Finland for the purpose of taking up employment abroad have now been published in the journal of the Finnish Ministry of Social Affairs [2]. The final figures cannot be obtained until it is found from the passengers' lists of the emigration agents how many recipients of passports actually left the country during the year.

The number of passports issued in 1928 was 6,410, as compared with 7,301 in the previous year. There was therefore a slight reduction in emigration. The distribution over the various months differs somewhat from that for previous years. As before, emigration was at its highest in the spring months March to May, reaching the maximum in April. The increase was much smaller than in the corresponding period in 1927, when 2,906 persons in all received passports, as against 2,051 in 1928. In other respects, the course of emigration was much the same as in 1927, the maximum for the second half of the year being reached in August, after which the figure fell month by month until the end of the year.

The distribution of the emigrants by country of destination was about the same as in the immediately preceding years. Not quite four-fifths proposed to emigrate to Canada, and the remainder to the United States (for which the Finnish quota is still 471 persons a year), Australia, and South America. About 300 persons proposed to emigrate to European countries.

Oversea Emigration from Sweden in 1928 [3]

The total number of emigrants from Sweden in 1928 was 11,049, as compared with 10,518 in 1927, 10,414 in 1926, 8,954 in 1925, and 7,473 in 1924. The figures include only emigrants who, on leaving

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[1] *Politiken*, 24 Feb. 1929. Copenhagen.
[2] *Sosialinen Aikakauskirja — Social Tidskrift*, No. 2, 1929.
[3] *Sociala Meddelanden*, No. 2, 1929. Stockholm.

a Scandinavian port, were in possession of approved emigration contracts drawn up by the competent emigration agents. The number of emigrants registered in this way has as a rule been somewhat lower during the last few years than the number of persons reported by the local authorities to the Central Statistical Office as having applied for certificates to go abroad. In 1927, the last year for which complete figures are available, the difference was rather more than 4 per cent.

The distribution of the emigrants by age and sex in 1928 was as follows:

Age	Men		Women		Total		1927
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Per cent.
Years							
Under 15	383	5.2	431	11.7	814	7.4	7.8
15–25	4,122	56.0	1,724	46.7	5,846	52.9	50.8
25–35	2,227	30.2	1,042	28.2	3,269	29.6	30.4
35–45	411	5.6	283	7.6	694	6.3	7.3
45–55	144	2.0	114	3.1	258	2.3	2.4
Over 55	69	1.0	99	2.7	168	1.5	1.3
Total	7,356	100.0	3,693	100.0	11,049	100.0	100.0

Of the emigrants, 33.4 per cent. were women, as compared with 28.4 per cent. in 1927, and 34.6 per cent. in 1926.

The number of migrants in transit through Sweden was 2,725; their distribution by nationality and sex was as follows:

Country of origin	Men	Women	Total
Finland	1,148	1,140	2,288
Estonia	70	84	154
Norway	82	38	120
Lithuania	87	4	91
Denmark	38	16	54
Other countries	8	10	18
Total	1,433	1,292	2,725

The above figures include only those oversea emigrants who were transported direct from a Swedish port (i.e. by the Swedish-America Line from Gothenburg).

Emigration from the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom

According to the report submitted to the Parliament of the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom on the activity of the emigration services during the year 1926-1927, the number of Yugoslavs who have emigrated may be estimated at more than 800,000. Most of these emigrants (at least 650,000) have settled in the United States. In Germany there are 50,000 Yugoslav emigrants, mainly in Westphalia and the Rhenish provinces; in Argentina, more than 40,000; in France, about 25,000, most of whom are agricultural workers; in Canada, at least 18,000; in Brazil, about 8,000; in Chile, also 8,000; in Australia, 5,000; in Uruguay, more than 4,000; in Belgium, 2,000, mostly miners and agricultural workers; in New Zealand, 1,500; and in South Africa, 500.

The report adds that for the moment Yugoslav emigration to certain countries is at a standstill: to Australia, owing to the restrictions on immigration and the conditions imposed on Yugoslav immigrants there; to Brazil, owing to climatic conditions; and to Chile, owing to the depression in the nitrate industry. There seem on the contrary to be fairly important openings in Argentina, which is at present the destination principally chosen by Yugoslavs, and in Uruguay.

Migration in Great Britain in 1928 [1]

The statistics of migration and of the general passenger movement from and to the United Kingdom in 1928 were published in the *Board of Trade Journal* for 7 March 1929.

Movement of Passengers

With regard to the total passenger movement to the United Kingdom and places outside Europe and not within the Mediterranean Sea, there was an outward balance of 82,830 persons of British nationality (103,603 in 1927) and an outward balance of 37,712 aliens (50,755). In the traffic to and from the Continent of Europe, including all ports on the Mediterranean Sea, there was an inward balance of 62,161 persons of all nationalities (78,914). There was therefore an outward balance between these two movements of 58,381 (75,444).

In the traffic to and from the Irish Free State, exclusive of the movement over the land frontier, there was an inward balance of 15,253 British subjects and aliens (20,688). No information is given concerning the nationality of these passengers, but the great majority were no doubt British subjects.

There was a total outward balance in all directions of 43,128 British subjects and aliens (54,756).

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[1] For the corresponding statistics for 1927, cf. *Monthly Record of Migration*, Vol. III, No. 4, April 1928, p. 138.

Migration of British Subjects

With regard to the movement of British migrants, i.e. British subjects leaving permanent residence (one year or more) in the United Kingdom to take up permanent residence in non-European countries and *vice versa*, there was an emigration of 136,834 during the year (153,505 in 1927) and an immigration of 59,105 (55,715). There was therefore an outward balance of 77,729 as compared with 97,790 in the previous year.

It will be observed that for the second year in succession emigration was less and British immigration greater than in the previous year. The following tables show the countries of future permanent residence and of last permanent residence of the migrants in 1928; totals for 1927 are added for purposes of comparison.

COUNTRY OF FUTURE OR LAST PERMANENT RESIDENCE OF BRITISH MIGRANTS IN 1928

A. *Emigrants*

Country of future permanent residence	Adults of 12 years and upwards		Children under 12	Total	
	Males	Females		1928	1927
British North America	31,551	16,118	7,040	54,709	52,916
Australia	12,407	11,412	4,895	28,714	40,991
New Zealand	2,038	2,205	732	4,975	7,841
British South Africa	3,075	3,086	934	7,095	7,572
India (including Ceylon)	2,472	3,007	1,023	6,502	6,476
Other parts of the British Empire	3,798	2,540	649	6,987	6,937
Total British Empire	55,341	38,368	15,273	108,982	122,733
United States	8,797	9,714	3,834	22,345	25,662
Other foreign countries	2,578	2,183	746	5,507	5,110
Total British emigrants, 1928	66,716	50,265	19,853	136,834	—
Total British emigrants, 1927	70,193	58,095	25,217	—	153,505

B. *Immigrants*

Country of last permanent residence	Adults of 12 years and upwards		Children under 12	Total	
	Males	Females		1928	1927
British North America	9,598	4,418	1,788	15,804	12,570
Australia	3,469	3,682	1,244	8,395	8,032
New Zealand	1,110	1,361	440	2,911	2,511
British South Africa	1,939	2,692	927	5,558	5,433
India (including Ceylon)	2,480	3,234	1,890	7,604	7,821
Other parts of the British Empire	2,740	2,147	1,011	5,898	5,817
Total British Empire	21,336	17,534	7,300	46,170	42,184
United States	3,089	2,853	833	6,775	6,765
Other foreign countries	2,573	2,334	1,253	6,160	6,766
Total British immigrants, 1928	26,998	22,721	9,386	59,105	—
Total British immigrants, 1927	22,810	23,117	9,788	—	55,715

The movement of British migrants to the Empire as a whole showed a decrease of 13,751 as compared with the previous year. The apparent increase of 1,793 in the number proceeding to British North America is due to the outward movement of the harvesters to Canada, the great majority of these harvesters having been recorded as emigrants. If allowance were made for those harvesters who subsequently returned, there would be a decrease of about 6,000 in the number of British emigrants to Canada. It will be noted that there were substantial decreases of 12,277 and 2,866 in the numbers proceeding to Australia and New Zealand respectively.

The provisional figures of departures under the Empire Settlement Act (assisted emigrants) during 1928 were 20,619 to Australia, 2,175 to New Zealand, 27,521 to Canada, 197 to South Africa, and 7 to other places; a total of 50,519, including 16,573 men, 14,574 women, and 19,372 children.

The number of British emigrants to the United States in 1928 was 3,317 fewer than in 1927. The total was 22,345, as compared with a quota of 34,007, but it should be noted that this quota includes all persons born in Great Britain and Northern Ireland who are admitted to the United States, and are not exempt from inclusion in the quota, from whatever country they may come.

The larger number of British immigrants in 1928 as compared with 1927 is attributed to the increase in the inward movement from British North America, which includes the return movement of the harvesters.

Finally, it may be noted that of the emigrants of 12 years of age and over the males exceeded the females by 16,451 (12,098 in 1927). In the movement to the United States the proportion of females to all adults was 52 per cent. in 1928 and 48 per cent. in 1927.

Irish Free State Migration in 1928

Passenger movement and migration statistics for the Irish Free State for 1928, compiled by the Irish Free State Department of Industry and Commerce from statutory returns, have been published in the British *Board of Trade Journal*. In the following analysis of these statistics 1927 figures will also be given, in brackets, for purposes of comparison [1].

Movement of Passengers

The total movement of passengers of all classes (including persons other than emigrants and immigrants) between the Irish Free State and places outside of Europe and not within the Mediterranean Sea, showed an outward balance of 15,363 (17,346) persons of British nationality and an inward balance of 1,194 (839) persons of alien nationality. As in 1927, the whole of the direct sea passenger traffic took place between the Irish Free State and the North American Continent, and 94 per cent. (96 per cent.) of this traffic was with the United States.

The passenger traffic between the Irish Free State and the United Kingdom showed an outward balance of 15,253 persons (British subjects and aliens) as compared with 20,688 in 1927. As in the previous year, about one-third of this excess was accounted for by the balance outward of British migrants from the Irish Free State who travelled to non-European countries via United Kingdom ports.

Movement of Migrants

With regard to the movement of British migrants *via* Irish Free State ports, the returns show that the number of British subjects who left permanent residence (one year or more) in the Irish Free State to take up permanent residence in non-European countries was 18,596 (20,024), and the British subjects recorded as leaving permanent residence in non-European countries to take up permanent residence in the Irish Free State numbered 1,108 (941). Of the 18,596 emigrants who sailed from Irish Free State ports, 17,824 went to the United States, 759 to British North America, and 13 to other countries.

In addition to the migrants of British nationality from and into the Irish Free State who travelled direct *via* ports in the Irish Free State, there were, in 1928, 6,095 emigrants from and 1,046 immigrants into the Irish Free State who travelled *via* ports in the United Kingdom, compared with 7,124 and 963 respectively in 1927. In 1928 about quarter of the emigrants from and half of the immigrants into the Irish Free State travelled *via* ports in the United Kingdom.

The total number of emigrants, therefore, of British nationality from the Irish Free State who sailed from ports in the British Isles in 1928 was 24,691 (27,148 in 1927), including 21,684 to the United States, 1,598 to British North America, 801 to Australia, and 608 to other places outside Europe.

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[1] The 1927 returns were analysed in the *Monthly Record of Migration*, Vol. III, No. 4, April 1928, pp. 140-142.

The total number of immigrants (intending residence for a year or more) of British nationality was 1,108 *via* Irish Free State ports and 1,046 *via* ports in the United Kingdom (941 and 963 in 1927).

The country of future or last permanent residence of the migrants is shown in the following table :

Country	Emigrants	Immigrants
British North America	1,598	234
Australia	801	162
New Zealand	112	64
British South Africa	147	90
India (including Ceylon)	115	123
Other parts of the British Empire	116	78
Total British Empire	2,889	751
United States	21,684	1,325
Other foreign countries	105	76
Total British migrants 1928	24,691 [1]	2,154 [2]
" " " 1927	27,148	1,904
" " " 1926	30,041	1,786

[1] Including 13 who departed from Irish Free State ports to countries not specified.
[2] Including 2 who arrived at Irish Free State ports from countries not specified.

It is to be noted that the number of emigrants continued to fall and that of immigrants of British nationality (mainly returned emigrants) to increase [1].

Canadian Immigration in 1927-1928

The recently published report [2] of the Canadian Department of Immigration and Colonisation for the fiscal year 1927-1928 contains, in addition to detailed statistics of immigration, a number of reports which give information on such subjects as the progress of Empire Settlement Schemes, the work carried on by the representatives of the Department in Great Britain and on the Continent of Europe, Chinese immigration, juvenile immigration, and the working of the system of free medical examination of intending European emigrants to Canada.

In addition to a summary of Canadian immigration statistics for the year 1927-1928 which has already been given in the *Monthly Record of Migration* [3], it is of interest to note the distribution by nationality of immigrants into Canada. The following list shows the numbers of each nationality who entered the country during the fiscal year 1927-1928.

[1] *Board of Trade Journal*, 14 March 1929.

[2] Dominion of Canada : *Report of the Department of Immigration and Colonisation for the fiscal year ended 31 March 1928*. Ottawa, 1929.

[3] Vol. III, No. 8, Aug. 1928, pp. 286-288.

Nationality	Number	Nationality	Number
African (not British)	1	Italian	3,574
Albanian	14	Japanese	462
Arabian	8	Latvian	116
Argentinian	11	Lithuanian	1,418
Armenian	6	Luxemburg	31
Austrian	1,389	Mexican	11
Belgian	2,347	Norwegian	4,432
Brazilian	3	Paraguayan	2
British	54,248	Persian	3
Bulgarian	254	Polish	19,067
Chilian	6	Porto Rican	1
Columbian	1	Rumanian	4,208
Cuban	1	Russian	3,073
Czechoslovak	6,035	Spanish	9
Danish	3,885	Swedish	2,652
Dutch	1,625	Swiss	828
Estonian	133	Syrian	112
Finnish	5,340	Turkish	7
French	674	Ukrainian	214
German	4,829	U.S.A. citizens	21,368
Greek	561	Venezuelan	2
Hungarian	4,397	Yugoslav	4,205
Icelandic	34		
		Total	151,597

Immigration in British Guiana

The Annual Report of the Immigration Agent-General of British Guiana for the year 1927 states that no immigrants were introduced into the colony from India during the year, but 2,252 East Indians arrived in the colony by ordinary passenger ships while 2,611 departed from it. Moreover, 28 males, 10 females, and 2 children were introduced under contract from Barbados during the year.

On 25 August 1927 a steamer sailed from Georgetown with 570 returning migrants on board for Calcutta. Of these, 54 were granted free passages after ten years, 408 assisted passages, 8 paid their own passages in full, and 100 were paupers and lepers. The total East Indian population in British Guiana on 31 December 1927 was 127,017.

The provisions of section 196 of Ordinance No. 18 of 1891, with regard to East Indians obtaining passports from the Immigration Agent-General before leaving the colony, were relaxed as from May 1927, and East Indians now come under the General Regulations applicable to the community generally.

TABLE I. OVERSEA EMIGRATION

Period	Nationals														
	Germany	Austria	Belgium	Danzig	Spain	Finland	Great Britain	Hungary	Irish Free State	Italy	Japan	Lithuania	Palestine	Netherlands	Poland	Portugal
1920-1924[1]	48,205	7,820	3,538	—	91,476	6,763	214,067	3,869	16,236	172,471	10,227	*	2,062	4,041	55,577	29,287
1925	62,705	4,627	2,498	*	55,544	2,075	140,594	3,519	30,181	101,873	1,655	*	2,419	2,987	38,649	21,575
1926	65,280	3,895	3,672	753	45,299	5,638	166,601	5,856	30,041	122,496	1,943	*	1,694	3,059	49,457	34,132
1927	61,379	5,354	4,130	94	43,867	5,696	153,505	5,586	26,148	136,094	1,892	*	2,271	3,239	58,187	25,704
1928	57,241	4,589	2,566	3	—	6,507	136,834	6,654	24,691	—	1,780	—	1,345	3,258	—	50,455
1928 March	7,048	672	486	—	3,077	649	13,525	739	2,623	7,698	211	1,060	50	531		2,266
April	5,433	512	287	1	2,537	680	13,990	1,361	4,065	—	258	700	102	435	32,951[3]	1,413
May	5,857	420	320	—	2,589	609	13,144	783	2,726	—	175	962	109	350		2,011
June	3,326	440	200	—	1,999	502	10,606	725	1,393	—	128	703	90	148		1,464
July	2,911	350	143	1	2,082	602	9,693	831	1,466	—	149	—	70	114	7,581	3,514
Aug.	4,096	246	176	—	2,573	652	18,196	648	2,106	—	167	—	170	224	4,313	3,154
Sept.	4,542	360	211	—	5,118	562	13,819	271	3,318	—	97	—	116	714	4,278	6,862
Oct.	6,368	378	194	1	—	474	12,425	247	2,395	—	112	—	127	198	—	8,961
Nov.	5,310	355	116	—	—	305	9,841	330	1,326	—	148	—	267	119	—	10,044
Dec.	2,548	255	135	0	5,658	289	5,935	214	557	—	102	—	110	55	—	6,839
1929 Jan.	4,367	—	—	0	—	360	—	—	—	—	—	—	97	125	—	—
Feb.	—	—	—	—	—	443	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	164	—	—
March	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Period	Nationals		Aliens							Nationals and aliens							
	Rumania	Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom	Germany	Argentina	United States	Irish Free State	Palestine	Rumania	Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom	South Africa	Australia[4]	Denmark	Norway	New Zealand[5]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
1920-1924[1]	*	10,329	*	46,636	148,914	*	2,100	*	*	*	*	5,925	8,689	2,605	11,384	5,918	13,104
1925	3,540	15,005	909	49,841	76,247	121	1,681	11	2,638	4,483	16,957	4,578	6,975	1,948	8,576	4,334	7,379
1926	19,099	15,726	1,157	55,769	68,383	318	7,735	132	2,504	3,798	17,433	5,804	9,645	2,581	10,202	4,947	12,063
1927	8,343	19,527	1,268	57,936	68,834	161	4,704	233	2,492	4,742	17,932	7,996	12,137	4,145	9,896	5,788	14,833
1928	11,743	19,472	992	—	69,384	109	1,708	232	2,326	5,220	19,648	7,698	8,989	3,954	10,925	4,800	15,461
1928 March	1,906	2,674	100	6,904	4,306	9	239	15	185	688	2,384	1,278	1,477	390	1,496	475	2,838
April	1,345	1,941	68	5,795	4,025	8	138	27	157	315		1,189	1,005	502	1,373	363	2,161
May	900	1,394	82	5,745	5,498	23	203	24	170	415	5,524	985	899	344	944	416	1,538
June	1,010	1,027	75	7,954	6,472	15	173	27	191	415		378	565	330	511	298	1,068
July	905	1,575	66	5,252	7,105	5	77	16	241	401	1,517	560	650	319	815	350	1,424
Aug.	705	1,615	146	5,079	5,635	9	147	30	308	343	1,143	616	844	333	685	365	1,188
Sept.	674	1,772	76	—	7,007	2	118	23	311	376	1,130	503	596	267	1,146	501	847
Oct.	874	1,988	111	—	6,907	15	127	14	190	264	1,329	511	883	274	928	660	891
Nov.	840	1,704	80	—	5,762	4	118	27	195	362	1,576	466	498	239	898	475	858
Dec.	583	1,135	72	—	7,540	2	68	20	114	210	1,296	154	319	266	353	249	651
1929 Jan.	453	900	—	—	3,649	—	76	20	134	—	1,919	378	—	207	1,067	321	583
Feb.	-	1,044	-	-	3,436	—	—	—	101	—	—	361	—	—	961	253	770
March	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,254	396	—

[1] Annual average. [2] The figures are not available for the period August 1924 to January 1926. [3] Figure for the first six months of 1928.

Period	Nationals (repatriation)												Aliens	
	Germany[2]	Spain	Great Britain	Hungary	Irish Free State	Italy	Japan	Poland	Portugal	Rumania	Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom	Czechoslovakia	Argentina[4]	Australia[4]
1920-1924[1]	*	47,445	69,433	997	2,789	66,458	15,379	34,651	16,501	*	8,175	3,715	132,325	90,837
1925	32,596	37,887	56,335	309	2,155	66,911	13,641	4,101	16,824	*	5,691	2,689	125,366	56,477
1926	29,656	39,949	51,063	400	1,786	71,520	13,750	6,017	16,846	1,189	5,550	2,884	155,111	59,464
1927	38,264	41,517	55,715	555	1,897	73,424	14,423	6,799	13,522	3,035	5,753	2,795	161,548	67,077
1928	45,075	—	59,105	576	2,153	—	13,368	—	21,423	3,904	5,827	—	—	48,233
1928 March	2,265	2,005	4,347	29	148	3,438	1,499	3,163[3]	881	252	368	287	11,811	4,367
April	3,647	4,885	6,476	42	196	—	1,454		1,412	335	514	157	8,105	
May	6,014	5,745	7,115	54	256	—	737		1,361	603	705	138	7,579	11,361
June	5,875	5,309	6,285	45	237	—	984		1,676	232	286	140	6,341	
July	5,663	6,007	5,066	36	268	—	882	654	2,767	274	641	—	7,152	3,898
Aug.	5,794	4,111	5,071	51	194	—	1,131	572	3,426	203	414	—	4,975	3,378
Sept.	3,318	2,187	4,149	18	180	—	1,095	400	1,685	252	225	—	—	2,762
Oct.	2,898	—	6,720	36	177	—	1,645	—	2,228	258	435	—	—	3,714
Nov.	2,121	—	4,279	79	131	—	1,411	—	1,898	258	395	—	—	3,763
Dec.	3,309	1,801	4,969	94	171	—	1,110	—	2,600	279	1,374	—	—	4,041
1929 Jan.	1,876	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	267	230	—	—	3,411
Feb.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	272	—	—	—
March	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Period	Aliens											Nationals and aliens	
	Canada	Cuba	United States	Irish Free State	New Zealand[4]	Palestine	Paraguay	Southern Rhodesia	Rumania	Czechoslovakia	Uruguay	South Africa	Belgium[6]
1920-1924[1]	85,658	52,534	394,144	*	14,538	8,875	332	2,494	*	204	2,906	16,863	5,867
1925	67,190	*	171,454	*	15,704	34,641	311	2,166	*	46	*	5,428	4,451
1926	115,040	*	181,820	197	17,868	13,910	317	2,958	347	26	*	6,575	5,694
1927	135,066	*	176,937	187	11,327	3,595	405	5,070	579	11	—	6,774	12,625
1928	136,849	9,484	179,470	737	6,339	1,344	—	—	109	—	3,570	7,201	—
1928 March	12,282	709	15,505	27	536	84	—	517	8	5	245	612	—
April	24,056	481	18,841	51	341	74	—	401	3	—	333	435	—
May	20,545	742	16,396	99	620	129	—	505	14	2	312	536	—
June	16,983	810	11,981	52	345	63	—	437	9	5	201	419	—
July	12,739	707	10,422	185	476	49	—	421	10	—	400	651	—
Aug.	21,759	595	12,783	53	502	107	—	368	*	—	246	630	—
Sept.	8,924	842	16,552	71	386	167	—	301	22	—	222	588	—
Oct.	5,374	1,309	18,585	74	630	118	—	325	23	—	317	639	—
Nov.	4,889	1,442	15,963	37	409	109	—	291	5	—	485	679	—
Dec.	3,971	1,847	12,133	50	727	120	—	—	10	—	313	679	—
1929 Jan.	2,591	855	10,586	—	711	254	—	—	1	—	345	—	—
Feb.	—	1,241	10,664	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
March	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

[1] Annual average. [2] Figures include Germans in transit to other countries. [3] Figure for the first six months of 1928.
[4] Including some continental immigrants. [5] Since January 1925 these figures have been obtained by the new method. They include some continental immigrants.
[6] Migrants in transit (returning) included.
The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE III. CONTINENTAL EMIGRATION

Period	Nationals							Aliens				
	Dominican Republic[2]	Finland	India	Italy	Poland	Rumania	Czecho-slovakia	Ceylon	Dominican Republic[2]	United States	France	Rumania
1920-1924[1]	*	315	113,568	182,622	38,898	*	28,421	51,388	*	7,967	46,715	9,311
1925	*	415	154,873	178,208	42,769	39	14,510	53,203	*	5,442	54,397	4,138
1926	*	405	281,016	141,314	117,136	67	11,627	61,265	*	4,796	41,174	9,555
1927	*	392	221,973	91,958	89,427	572	7,433	87,481	7,219	6,424	89,982	13,775
1928	*	331	110,178	—	—	528	10,015	—	—	8,215	53,903	12,123
1928 March	130	35	6,088[2]	6,516	94,613[3]	36	1,050	29,741[4]	1,444	625	4,609	712
April	121	31	6,011[2]	—		61	1,118	—	1,158	490	5,753	1,007
May	280	47	9,589[2]	—		126	1,163	—	863	742	5,118	1,115
June	152	29	13,601[2]	—		38	765	—	957	733	3,308	1,180
July	242	40	13,623[2]	—	6,136	14	591	—	995	699	4,871	1,248
Aug.	160	19	10,115[2]	—	4,760	10	631	—	969	853	4,723	1,232
Sept.	147	27	11,758[4]	—	6,067	161	735	—	806	1,086	3,858	818
Oct.	201	19	14,518	—	—	40	855	—	1,163	572	4,157	649
Nov.	—	17	8,255	—	—	12	843	—	—	787	3,986	1,632
Dec.	82	10	6,357	—	—	11	711	—	1,497	724	4,758	1,244
1929 Jan.	82	21	—	—	—	5	588	—	928	1,021	3,694	998
Feb.	—	16	—	—	—	—	781	—	—	718	2,762	—
March	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,376	—

TABLE IV. CONTINENTAL IMMIGRATION

Period	Nationals (repatriation)						Aliens									
	Canada	Dominican Republic[3]	Italy	Poland	Rumania	Czecho-slovakia	South Africa[6]	Germany	Canada	Ceylon	Cuba	Dominican Republic[5]	United States	France	Rumania	Czecho-slovakia
1920-1924[1]	*	*	68,181	—	*	*	*	27,591	30,362	68,770	31,448	*	157,747	201,188	12,794	2,192
1925	39,987	*	122,160	17,131	92	*	*	47,998	17,717	125,585	*	*	118,898	176,261	514	2,588
1926	62,293	*	106,099	49,171	65	4,124	*	55,157	20,944	101,746	*	*	154,475	170,366	4,469	2,226
1927	42,078	*	67,201	73,014	135	3,596	—	71,255	23,818	159,398	*	8,242	147,308	64,325	7,385	2,848
1928	34,120	*	—	—	264	2,609	74,943	—	29,933	—	*	—	119,467	88,550	7,555	—
1928 March	2,670	160	3,286	15,340[3]	10	174	18,102[4]	45,090	2,383	20,432[4]	12,500[4]	1,399	10,765	1,537	1,710	281
April	3,313	157	—		7	231		19,943	2,927	—	9	1,179	11,868	3,312	596	285
May	3,833	102	—		10	230	15,307	9,180	3,096	—	115	788	9,762	11,114	680	41
June	3,526	196	—		16	181		2,247	3,320	—	141	967	8,438	7,812	811	17
July	3,394	157	—	2,162	18	179		1,400	3,044	—	187	991	10,260	13,075	503	—
Aug.	3,602	164	—	1,344	36	182	20,119	809	3,581	—	131	965	11,846	6,690	413	—
Sept.	3,184	158	—	2,088	58	195		2,674	2,739	—	245	829	12,765	16,007	714	—
Oct.	2,691	142	—	—	21	227		1,861	2,667	—	170	935	11,332	15,058	528	—
Nov.	2,258	—	—	—	26	322	21,415	4	1,955	—	210	—	8,842	5,297	374	—
Dec.	2,154	142	—	—	23	331		—	1,544	—	147	1,751	6,224	6,587	394	—
1929 Jan.	1,767	111	—	—	15	167		—	1,573	—	146	855	7,220	3,324	477	—
Feb.	—	—	—	—	—	140	—	—	—	—	100	—	6,590	4,667	—	—
March	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	7,825	—	—

[1] Annual average. [2] Including some overseas emigrants. [3] Including some overseas immigrants. [4] Figure for the first six months of 1928. [5] The sign * signifies "no figures published". [6] Figure for the first quarter of 1928. The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE V. MIGRANTS IN TRANSIT (OUTGOING)

Period	South Africa	Germany	Belgium	Danzig	Spain	Italy	Norway	Netherlands	Sweden
1920-1924[1]	*	25,922	24,555	27,346	*	12,554	1,488	22,478	*
1925	6,044	20,405	10,101	12,120	1,799	20,813	397	16,288	*
1926	7,778	28,239	16,538	27,391	1,783	23,792	319	14,730	*
1927	7,876	27,900	21,092	34,774	2,195	24,452	256	15,064	*
1928	8,118	26,443	15,553	35,280	—	—	147	15,655	—
1928 March	850	3,055	3,279	2,492	225	—	8	1,249	298
April	713	2,736	1,661	5,293	150	—	16	1,377	378
May	901	3,077	1,654	4,996	156	—	12	1,388	284
June	695	1,671	1,333	4,698	160	—	20	1,373	168
July	734	1,717	1,046	5,924	137	—	16	901	289
Aug.	685	1,798	2,788	2,742	149	—	10	1,675	163
Sept.	540	2,071	902	1,243	221	—	25	1,233	374
Oct.	521	2,328	633	2,030	—	—	8	1,452	203
Nov.	855	2,579	583	1,604	—	—	4	1,649	160
Dec.	578	1,923	467	1,163	177	—	1	1,084	—
1929 Jan.	—	1,870	—	1,012	—	—	—	1,268	—
Feb.	—	—	—	520	—	—	—	857	—
March	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE VI. MIGRANTS IN TRANSIT (RETURNING)

Period	South Africa	Germany [2]	Spain	Italy
1925	5,608	45,375	—	13,053
1926	6,791	45,859	—	12,363
1927	8,130	50,510	—	14,475
1928	8,505	58,254	—	—
1928 March	763	2,214	18	—
April	625	3,900	62	—
May	707	8,913	34	—
June	529	11,366	63	—
July	758	10,505	86	—
Aug.	640	6,200	55	—
Sept.	706	3,975	31	—
Oct.	829	2,969	—	—
Nov.	884	1,999	—	—
Dec.	748	2,341	71	—
1929 Jan.	—	1,626	—	—
Feb.	—	—	—	—
March	—	—	—	—

[1] Annual average. [2] These figures also include oversea immigration of aliens into Germany.
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Recent Labour Legislation

The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French, and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used [1]. Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1927

MANDATED TERRITORY

British Togoland.

An Ordinance to exclude from operation with respect to the Northern Section of the British Sphere of Togoland the Ordinance of the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast shortly entitled "The Land and Native Rights Ordinance, 1927", and to provide for the settlement by executive authority of certain disputes between natives relating to land. No. 1 of 1927. Assented to 21 May 1927. (Ordinances of Gold Coast, Ashanti, etc., 1927, p. 307.)

AUSTRALIA

New South Wales.

An Act to provide for the relief of certain settlers; to provide for the revision of certain indebtedness to the Crown in respect of certain cases under the Closer Settlement Acts; to provide for the redetermination of the price or value of settlement purchases; to make further provision regarding the subdivision of holdings under the said Acts and the acquisition of additional holdings; and for these and other purposes to amend the Closer Settlement Act, 1904, the Returned Soldiers Settlement Act, 1916, and certain other Acts; and for purposes connected therewith. Assented to 17 February 1927. No. 14 of 1927. (Statutes of New South Wales, 1927, p. 172.)

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[1] *List of abbreviations:* A. N. = Amtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für Soziale Verwaltung; B. G. Bl. = Bundesgesetzblatt; B. I. R. S. = Boletin del Instituto de Reformas Sociales; B. M. T. = Bulletin du ministère du Travail; B. O. M. T. = Boletin Oficial del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria; C. S. R. = Commonwealth Statutory Rules; D. R. A. = Deutscher Reichsanzeiger; Drj. Vest. = Drjaven Vestnik; E. K. N. = Ergatiké kai Koinonikè Nomothesia (pararténa B') (published by the Ministry of National Economy); Eph. Kyb. = Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Teuchos proton); G. U. = Gazzetta Ufficiale; I. N. K. T. = Izvestia Narodnogo Komissariata Trooda; J. O. = Journal Officiel; Lik. = Likumu un Ministru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums; R. Arb. Bl. = Reichsarbeitsblatt; R. d. T. = Revue du Travail; R. G. Bl. = Reichsgesetzblatt; S. R. & O. = Statutory Rules and Orders; Sb. z. a n. = Sbirka zákonu a narizeni (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslovak Republic); L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office.

An Act to enable the conversion of certain holdings in the Western Division into holdings under the Crown Lands Consolidation Act, 1913, as amended by subsequent Acts ; to enable the acceptance of surrender of a portion of the area included in a Western Lands lease ; to make further provisions for the withdrawal of lands from Western Lands Acts, 1901, and certain other Acts ; and for purposes connected therewith. Assented to 17 February 1927. No. 15 of 1927. (Statutes of New South Wales, 1927, p. 187.)

An Act to amend the law as to the determination of capital values in certain cases ; to enable the reappraisement of certain rentals ; to enable holders of conditional purchase leases to convert their holdings into conditional purchases and conditional leases, and holders of homestead farms to convert their holdings into Crown leases in certain events ; to enable conditional leases and certain other additional holdings to be transferred and held separately from the holding in virtue of which the additional holding was applied for ; to amend and extend the law relating to the subdivision of holdings ; to validate certain notifications relating to reserves from sale ; to amend the law with regard to the dealing with certain applications ; and for this and other purposes to amend the Crown Lands Consolidation Act, 1913, and certain other Acts, and for purposes connected therewith. Assented to 17 February 1927. No. 16 of 1927. (Statutes of New South Wales, 1927, p. 194.)

An Act to promote primary production by the formation of Marketing Boards representing producers and consumers of certain products ; to provide for the taking of polls of such producers prior to the formation of the Board for the product in which they are concerned ; to confer upon such Marketing Boards powers with respect to marketing the products and making certain levies on the producers ; to provide for the collection of statistics relating to products ; and for purposes connected therewith. Assented to 25 March 1927. No. 34 of 1927. (Statutes of New South Wales, 1927, p. 329.)

An Act to make further provision as to the regulation of electrical installation work ; to amend the Electrical Contractors and Electricians Licensing Act, 1924, and certain other Acts ; and for purposes connected therewith. Assented to 12 December 1927. No. 53 of 1927. (Statutes of New South Wales, 1927, p. 468.)

GOLD COAST COLONY

An Ordinance to amend the Mining Health Areas Ordinance, 1925. No. 11 of 1927. Assented to 18 March 1927. (Ordinances of Gold Coast, Ashanti, etc., 1927, p. 33.)

An Ordinance to define and to regulate the exercise of certain powers and jurisdictions by Native Authorities, and to assign certain functions to the Provincial Councils, and for purposes connected therewith. No. 18 of 1927. Assented to 22 April 1927. (Ordinances of Gold Coast, Ashanti, etc., 1927, p. 67.)

An Ordinance to amend the Immigration Restriction Ordinance 1925. No. 16 of 1927. Assented to 3 May 1927. (Ordinances of Gold Coast, Ashanti, etc., 1927, p. 61.)

An Ordinance further to amend the Widows' and Orphans' Pensions Ordinance. No. 23 of 1927. Assented to 1 July 1927. (Ordinances of Gold Coast, Ashanti, etc., 1927, p. 157.)

An Ordinance further to amend the Towns Ordinance. No. 28 of 1927. Assented to 28 September 1927. (Ordinances of Gold Coast, Ashanti, etc., 1927, p. 191.)

An Ordinance to amend the Public Holidays Ordinance. No. 32 of 1927. Assented to 12 November 1927. (Ordinances of Gold Coast, Ashanti, etc., 1927, p. 207.)

Northern Territories of the Gold Coast.

An Ordinance to define and regulate the tenure of land within the Protectorate. No. 1 of 1927. Assented to January 1927. (Ordinances of Gold Coast, Ashanti, etc., 1927, p. 273.)

An Ordinance for the Development and Assistance of Education in the Protectorate, and for purposes connected therewith. No. 6 of 1927. Assented to 1 January 1927. (Ordinances of Gold Coast, Ashanti, etc., 1927, p. 297.)

GREECE

Decree for the administration of section 4 of the Legislative Decree [of 13 November 1925] respecting clinics for venereal diseases in ports. Dated 21 March 1927. (Eph. Kyb., 1927, I, No. 58, p. 417.)

IRISH FREE STATE

Acht chun leasu do dheanamh ar an dli a bhaineas le sealbhuiocht agus unaereacht talmhan agus chun cricheanna eile a bhaineas leis sin. 21adh Bealtaine, 1927. Uimhir 19 de 1927.

An Act to amend the law relating to the occupation and ownership of land and for other purposes relating thereto. Dated 21 May 1927. No. 19 of 1927.

(Saorstat Eireann, Public General Acts, 1927, Vol. I, p. 481.)

Acht chun socru do dheanamh chun cuid eachta do bhunu agus do chlaru ag a mBeidh se mar phriomh-chuspoir cairde do thabhairt do dhaoine ata ag gabhail do thalmhaiocht agus do ghnothai bhaineas le talmhaiocht, chun a udaru go dTabharfidh an stat urraiochtai maidir le caipital na cuideachtan san agus le hUrruis a thabharfa s i amach agus chun socru do dheanamh i dTaobh nithe airithe eile bhaineas leis an gCuideachtain sin, agus chun a chur in usacht d'Fheirmeoiri airgead d'Fhail ar iasacht ar mhorgaisti ar a stoc feirmeoireachta agus chun oibriu agus eifeacht na morgaisti sin do rialail. 28 Bealtaine 1927. Uimhir 24 de 1927.

An Act to make provision for the formation and registration of a company having for its principal object the giving of credit to persons engaged in agriculture and businesses ancillary to agriculture, to authorise the giving of guarantees by the State in relation to the capital of such company and securities issued by it, and to provide for certain other matters relating to such company, and to facilitate the borrowing of money by farmers on mortgages of their farming stock and to regulate the operation and effect of such mortgages. Dated 28 May 1927. No. 24 of 1927.

(Saorstat Eireann, Public General Acts, 1927, Vol. II, p. 666.)

Acht chun socru do dheanamh chun daoine chleachtann leigheas agus mainliaghacht do chlaru agus do rialu agus chun cricheanna eile bhaineas le cleachta leighis agus mainliaghachta agus leis na daoine ata ag gabhail don chleachta san. 28adh Bealtaine, 1927. Uimhir 25 de 1927.

An Act to make provision for the registration and control of persons practising medicine and surgery and for other purposes relating to the practice of medicine and surgery and the persons engaged in such practice. Dated 28 May 1927. No. 25 of 1927.

(Saorstat Eireann, Public General Acts, 1927, Vol. II, p. 712.)

Acht chun a thuille socruithe agus chun socru nios fearr do dheanamh chun an stat agus an phuibliocht do chimead suas agus do choinneail o bhaol. 11adh Lunasa, 1927. Uimhir 31 de 1927.

An Act to make further and better provision for the maintenance and preservation of the State and the public safety. Dated 11 August 1927. No. 31 of 1927.

(Saorstat Eireann, Public General Acts, 1927, Vol. II, p. 993.)

Acht chun buanu ar feadh treimhse teoranta do dheanamh ar achtachain airithe ata ag dul in eug. 2adh Mi na Nodlag, 1927. Uimhir 36 de 1927.

An Act to continue for a limited period certain expiring Enactments. 2 December, 1927. No. 36 of 1927.

(Saorstat Eireann, Public General Acts, 1927, Vol. II, p. 1151.)

[*Inter alia :* The Labourers (Ireland) Act 1883 ; the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1908 ; the National Health Insurance Act, 1911 (section 42) ; the Workmen's Compensation (War Addition) Act 1917 ; the Unemployment (Relief Works) Act, 1920.]

MALAY STATES (NON-FEDERATED)

Kelantan.

An Enactment to repeal certain obsolete Regulations and Enactments. No. 4 of 1927. Dated 16 August 1927.

NORTH BORNEO

Notification No. 150 under section 3 of the Rules Ordinance, 1906 [definition of "Engineer"]. Dated 1 June, 1927. (Ordinances and Rules of North Borneo, 1927, p. 49.)

Notification No. 151 under section 4 of the Machinery Ordinance, 1920. (Notification 129 of 1923 amended.) Dated 1 June 1927. (Ordinances and Rules of North Borneo, 1927, p. 49.)

Notification No. 205 under section 3 of the Rules Ordinance, 1906, amending the Labour Ordinance, 1916. (Section 12 of the Labour Ordinance, 1916, is hereby amended by the addition of the following words: "No advance exceeding the sum of five dollars shall be recoverable from any indigenous labourer".) Dated 1 July 1927. (Ordinances and Rules of North Borneo, 1927, p. 40.)

Notification No. 211 under section 9 (ii) of the Labour Ordinance, 1916. (Gazette Notification 139 of 1924 prescribing, as a condition of every licence to employ indigenous labourers, an undertaking not to allow the debt of any such labourer to exceed a sum to be prescribed by the Protector is hereby cancelled.) Dated 1 July 1927. (Ordinances and Rules of North Borneo, 1927, p. 40.)

Notification No. 212 under section 63 of the Labour Ordinance, 1916. (Hospital Equipment.) Dated 1 July 1927. (Ordinances and Rules of North Borneo, 1927, p. 40.)

Notification No. 215 under section 4 of the Machinery Ordinance, 1920. (Section 13 of Gazette Notification 129 of 1923, as amended by Gazette Notifications 153 of 1926 and 151 of 1927, is further amended by the cancellation of the words "a Board of Examiners" and the words "the Board of Examiners" and the words "the examiner" wheresoever the same occur and the substitution therefor in each case of the words "the Chief Inspector".) Dated 1 July 1927. (Ordinances and Rules of North Borneo, 1927, p. 51.)

Ordinance No. 7 of 1927 (to make provision for mining). Dated 1 September 1927. (Ordinances and Rules of North Borneo, 1927, p. 23.)

Notification No. 357 under section 3 of the Rules Ordinance, 1906, amending the Labour Ordinance, 1916. Dated 1 December 1927. (Ordinances and Rules of North Borneo, 1927, p. 40.)

Notification No. 358 under section 39 of the Labour Ordinance, 1916 (form of Quarterly Labour Return). (Gazette Notification 181 of 1916 amended.) Dated 1 December 1927. (Ordinances and Rules of North Borneo, 1927, p. 43.)

Notification No. 359 under section 63 of the Labour Ordinance, 1916. (Minimum Wages.) (Gazette Notification 181 of 1916 amended.) Dated 1 December 1927. (Ordinances and Rules of North Borneo, 1927, p. 45.)

Notification No. 360 under section 11 of the Labour Ordinance, 1916. (Form of contract.) (Gazette Notification 181 of 1916 as amended by Gazette Notification 131 of 1920 further amended.) Dated 1 December 1927. (Ordinances and Rules of North Borneo, 1927, p. 45.)

Notification No. 361 under section 63 of the Labour Ordinance, 1916. (Hospital accommodation.) Dated 1 December 1927. (Ordinances and Rules of North Borneo, 1927, p. 45.)

LEGISLATION OF 1928

TERRITORY UNDER THE CONTROL OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Saar Territory.

Verfügung betr. Einrichtung von Verwaltungsbeiräten für den Bereich der Abteilungen des Mitgliedes der Regierungskommission für die Angelegenheiten der Volkswohlfahrt, der Landwirtschaft, des Veterinärwesens, der Forsten, des Arbeitswesens und der Sozialversicherung. Vom 28. Dezember 1928. Nr. 42. (Amtsblatt, 1929, No. 4, p. 17.)

INTERNATIONAL

Germany-Greece.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Greece and Germany, signed in Berlin on 24 March 1928. (Eph. Kyb., I, 1928, No. 132, p. 989.)

Germany-Union of South Africa.

Handels- und Schiffahrtsvertrag zwischen dem Deutschen Reiche und der Südafrikanischen Union. Vom 1. September 1928.

Verdrag van Handel en Skeepvaart tussen die Duitse Ryk en die Unie van Suid-Afrika. 1 September 1928.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between the German Reich and the Union of South Africa. Dated 1 September 1928.

(R. G. Bl., II, 1929, No. 3, p. 16.)

Norway-Denmark-Finland-Sweden.

Konvensjon mellem Norge, Danmark, Finland og Sverige om gjensidig understöttelse av trengende, undertegnet i Stockholm 25 oktober 1928. (Overenskomster med fremmede stater, 1928, No. 7, p. 356.)

[Convention between Norway, Denmark, Finland, and Sweden respecting the reciprocal relief of indigent persons. Signed at Stockholm on 25 October 1928.]

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth.

Transport Workers' Regulations : after regulation 17 is inserted new regulation 17A. (Issue of new licences where incorrect names given in first application.) Dated 7 December 1928. (C. S. R., 1928, No. 130.)

BAHAMAS

An Act relating to immigration. Chapter 24 of 1928. Assented to 13 September 1928. (Bahamas Acts, 19 George V, 1928, Ch. 24.)

BARBADOS

An Act to increase the supply of properly trained artisans by encouraging youths to become apprentices to approved master workmen. No. 41 of 1928. Dated 14 December 1928. (Supplement to Official Gazette, 3 January 1929, No. 1.)

BELGIUM

Laws.

Loi imposant l'insertion dans les cahiers des charges des travaux exécutés pour le compte de l'Etat d'une clause relative à l'octroi d'allocations familiales. — Soumissions et prix faits émanant d'entreprises établies à l'étranger. Du 18 octobre 1928. (R. d. T., 1928, No. 11, p. 1418.)

Loi ayant pour objet la mise en concordance de la législation belge avec la convention internationale pour l'unification de certaines règles concernant la limitation de la responsabilité des propriétaires de navires de mer, signée à Bruxelles, le 25 août 1924. - Du 28 novembre 1928. (Moniteur belge, 1929, No. 11, p. 96.)

Loi portant création d'un office et d'un fonds spécial en faveur des estropiés et mutilés. Du 1er décembre 1928. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 363, p. 5424.)

Loi ayant pour objet d'établir une prescription spéciale pour les infractions à la loi du 10 décembre 1924, modifiée par celle du 20 juillet 1927 relative à l'assurance en vue de la vieillesse et du décès prématuré et à la loi du 10 mars 1925, modifiée par celle du 10 juin 1926 et prorogée par celle du 26 décembre 1927, relative à l'assurance en vue de la vieillesse et du décès prématuré des employés. Du 24 décembre 1928. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 364, p. 5456.)

Loi rendant applicable jusqu'au 31 décembre 1929 les dispositions des §§ 2, 3, 4 et 5 de l'article 57 de la loi du 10 mars 1925 modifiée par celle du 10 juin 1926 et relative à celle de l'assurance en vue de la vieillesse et du décès prématuré des employés. Du 24 décembre 1928. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 364, p. 5458.)

* Loi ayant pour objet de compléter certaines dispositions de la loi du 20 juillet 1927, accordant un complément de pension aux bénéficiaires de la pension de vieillesse prévue par la loi du 20 août 1920 (modifiée par celle du 10 décembre 1924 et par les lois spéciales relatives à la pension des ouvriers mineurs), ainsi que l'article 36 de la loi du 10 décembre 1924, organisant l'assurance en vue de la vieillesse et du décès prématuré. Du 24 décembre 1928. (Moniteur belge, 1929, Nos. 7-8, p. 50.)

Orders.

Arrêté royal du 28 août 1928, concernant : Conseils de prud'hommes d'appel. — Opérations électorales. (R. d. T., 1928, No. 10, p. 1411.)

Arrêté royal du 27 décembre 1928, concernant : Pension des employés. — Arrêté royal du 29 décembre 1926. — Application aux versements effectués en 1929. (Moniteur belge, 1928, No. 364, p. 5458.)

Arrêté royal du 28 décembre 1928, concernant : Loi du 3 août 1919. — Exclusion de certains emplois du droit de préférence accordé aux anciens combattants. (Moniteur belge, 1929, Nos. 7-8, p. 52.)

BELGIAN COLONIES

Belgian Congo.

Ordonnance-loi du 3 avril 1928, No. 38/A. I. M. O., introduisant dans le décret du 16 mars 1922, sur le contrat de travail, des dispositions relative à l'acclimatation des travailleurs.

Verordening-wet van 3 April 1928, nr 38/I. Z. A., waarbij aan het decreet van 16 Maart 1922, op het werkcontract, bepalingen worden toegevoegd betreffende de acclimatiseering der arbeiders.

(Bulletin administratif du Congo belge, 1928, No. 7, p. 183.)

Ordonnance d'administration générale du 3 avril 1928, No. 39/A. I. M. O., déléguant aux Gouverneurs de Province, les pouvoirs conférés au Gouverneur Général par l'ordonnance-loi du 3 avril 1928, No. 38.

Verordening van algemeen beheer van 3 April 1928, nr. 39/I. Z. A., aan de Gouverneurs van Provincie overdragende de bevoegdheden aan den Algemeen-Gouverneur toegekend door de verordening-wet van 3 April 1928, nr. 38.

(Bulletin administratif du Congo belge, 1928, No. 7, p. 185.)

BRITISH GUIANA

An Ordinance to amend the Widows' and Orphans' Pensions Ordinance, 1923, with respect to the Directors of the Fund, to contributions, and to enable Officers of the Harbour Board to become contributors. No. 19 of 1928. Assented to 18 December 1928. (Official Gazette of British Guiana, 1928, Vol. LXVI, No. 36, p. 1603.)

BRITISH HONDURAS

An Ordinance to amend the Fraudulent Labourers (Advances) Ordinance, Chapter 105 of the Consolidated Laws, 1924. No. 32 of 1928. Assented to 12 December 1928. (Supplement to the British Honduras Gazette, 1928, 15 December, p. 227.)

BULGARIA

Ukase No. 24 : Act to supplement section 5 of the amendment to the Act of 1925 respecting pensions for officials of State and local government establishments. Dated 28 December 1928. (Drj. Vest., 1929, No. 239, p. 4.)

CHILE

Ley número 4496. — Establece disposiciones referentes a la organización de cooperativas agricolas. 10 de Diciembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 15349, p. 5927.)

[Act No. 4496, to issue regulations for the organisation of agricultural co-operative societies. Dated 10 December 1928.]

Decreto número 3921. — Establece diversas normas para el servicio de las deudas de los imponentes de la Caja de Retiros y de Previsión Social de los Ferrocarriles del Estado. 26 de Noviembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 15246, p. 5869.)

[Decree No. 3921, to lay down rules for dealing with the debts of members of the State Railways Superannuation and Provident Fund. Dated 26 November 1928.]

Decreto número 2531 : Reglamento para la aplicación de la Ley [número 4447] sobre protección de menores. 24 de Diciembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1929, No. 15268, p. 141.)

[Decree No. 2531, to issue regulations under the Act (No. 4447) respecting the welfare of children and young persons. Dated 24 December 1928.]

Decreto número 6039. — Aprueba el Plan de Estudios para los establecimientos de Educación Comercial. 29 de Diciembre de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 15265 p. 88.)

[Decree No. 6039, to approve the syllabus for commercial schools and classes. Dated 29 December 1928.]

CUBA

Decreto Número 62 : [Reducción de las jubilaciones y pensiones de los funcionarios y empleados del Estado, del Provincia y del Municipio]. 27 de diciembre de 1928. (Gaceta Oficial, 1929, No. 14, p. 810.)

[Decree No. 62 (to reduce the superannuation allowances and pensions of officials and employees of the State, provinces, and municipalities). Dated 27 December 1928.]

DANZIG (FREE CITY OF)

Bekanntmachung der neuen Fassung des Versorgungsgesetzes des Altrentnergesetzes und des Verfahrensgesetzes. Vom 8. November 1928. (Gesetztblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1928, No. 34, p. 365.)

Bekanntmachung betreffend Lohn- und Gehaltspfändungen. Vom 20. November 1928. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1928, No. 35, p. 411.)

EGYPT

Arrêté portant modification au tableau des établissements incommodes, insalubres et dangereux. [Peaux, cuirs.] Du 27 décembre 1928/15 Ragab 1347. (J. O. du Gouvernement égyptien, 1929, No. 2, p. 3.)

Arrêté portant modification au tableau des établissements incommodes, insalubres et dangereux. [Ecuries.] Du 27 décembre 1928/15 Ragab 1347. (J. O. du Gouvernement égyptien, 1929, No. 2, p. 3.)

FRENCH COLONIES

French Equatorial Africa.

Arrêté complétant l'arrêté du 7 octobre 1926, réglementant le contrat d'apprentissage dans les colonies de l'A. E. F. Du 14 septembre 1928. (J. O. de l'Afrique-Equatoriale française, 1928, No. 19, p. 921.)

French Establishments in Oceania.

Arrêté No. 381, créant un pécule pour les immigrants indochinois engagés dans les Etablissements français de l'Océanie. Du 2 mai 1928. (J. O. des Etablissements français de l'Océanie, 1928, No. 11, p. 226.)

Arrêté No. 658 *bis*, réglementant la plonge au scaphandre à Hikueru. Du 7 novembre 1928. (J. O. des Etablissements français de l'Océanie, 1928, No. 22, p. 432.)

French Guiana.

Arrêté No. 887 *bis*, créant un Office de travail en Guyane française. Du 28 août 1928. (J. O. de la Guyane française, 1928, No. 36, p. 525.)

French Indochina.

Arrêté portant création de la "carte spéciale d'ouvrier contractuel". Du 10 juillet 1928. (Bulletin administratif du Cambodge, 1928, No. 7, p. 920.)

Arrêté relatif au pécule acquis par les travailleurs indigènes employés dans les exploitations agricoles, industrielles, minières ou commerciales. Du 1er août 1928. (Bulletin administratif du Cambodge, 1928, No. 8, p. 1064.)

Arrêté relatif à la liquidation des pensions et secours à concéder sur la Caisse de retraite des Services civils coloniaux et locaux de l'Indochine. Du 1er août 1928. (Bulletin administratif du Cambodge, 1928, No. 8, p. 1065.)

French West Africa.

Arrêté promulguant en Afrique-Occidentale française le décret du 23 février 1928, autorisant l'accession des indigènes non citoyens français originaires des Colonies du groupe de l'Afrique-Occidentale française à certains emplois publics. Du 22 mai 1928. (J. O. de la Haute-Volta, 1928, No. 210, p. 201.)

Madagascar.

Arrêté instituant des conseils d'arbitrage du travail à Madagascar. Du 11 juillet 1928. (J. O. de Madagascar et dépendances, 1928, No. 2206, p. 857.)

Arrêté réglant les conditions d'application du décret du 6 décembre 1927, portant création de l'Office des habitations économiques de Madagascar. Du 11 juillet 1928. (J. O. de Madagascar et dépendances, 1928, No. 2206, p. 859.)

Modificatif à l'arrêté du 3 novembre 1920 réglementant les prestations des indigènes. Du 24 novembre 1928. (J. O. de Madagascar et dépendances, 1928, No. 2224, p. 1270.)

Arrêté relatif à la constitution, dans chacun des trois ports de Tamatave, Diégo-Suarez et Majunga, de la commission de visite des navires en service, pris en application des articles 2 du décret du 8 juillet 1913 et 15 de la loi du 17 avril 1907, concernant la sécurité de la navigation maritime. Du 27 novembre 1928. (J. O. de Madagascar et dépendances, 1928, No. 2225, p. 1289.)

Arrêté relatif à la constitution à Diégo-Suarez de la commission de visite des navires neufs ou nouvellement francisés, pris en application des articles 2 du décret du 8 juillet 1913, 15 et 4 de la loi du 17 avril 1907, pour la visite des navires compris dans l'article premier du même acte concernant la sécurité de la navigation maritime et la réglementation du travail à bord des navires de commerce. Du 27 novembre 1928. (J. O. de Madagascar et dépendances, 1928, No. 2225, p. 1289.)

Arrêté chargeant des fonctions d'inspecteur de la navigation l'officier de port le plus élevé en grade ou, à égalité de grade, le plus ancien en service dans chacun des ports de Tamatave, Diégo-Suarez et Majunga. Du 27 novembre 1928. (J. O. de Madagascar et dépendances, 1928, No. 2225, p. 1290.)

Arrêté autorisant la saisie des livrets de travail irréguliers. Du 30 novembre 1928. (J. O. de Madagascar et dépendances, 1928, No. 2225, p. 1291.)

Réunion.

Arrêté No. 940 promulguant à la Réunion le décret [français] du 4 août 1928, instituant dans la colonie une commission consultative du travail et de l'agriculture, Du 16 août 1928. (Journal et Bulletin officiel de l'Ile de la Réunion, 1928, No. 35, p. 469.)

Upper Volta.

Arrêté instituant en Haute-Volta un office du travail. Du 3 août 1928. (J. O. de la Haute-Volta, 1928, No. 212, p. 238.)

GERMANY

* Verordnung über die Herstellung von Knallkorken. Vom 27. Dezember 1928. (R. G. Bl., I, 1929, No. 2, p. 9.)

GREAT BRITAIN

The Unemployment Insurance (Banking Industry Special Scheme) (Amendment) (No. 2) Special Order, 1928, dated 1 August 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 and 11 Geo. V., ch. 30). (S. R. and O., 1928, No. 701.)

Order D. B. (14), dated 18 December 1928, confirming minimum rates of wages for male and female workers employed in those branches of the trade included by the Trade Boards (Waste Materials Reclamation Trade, Great Britain) (General Waste Branch) (Amendment) Regulations, 1927, which were not included by the Regulations, with respect to the Constitution and Proceedings of the Trade Board for the General Waste Branch of the Waste Materials Reclamation Trade, Great Britain, dated 27 August 1920, and specifying 24 December 1928 as the date from which such minimum rates shall become effective. (Title in Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1929, No. 1, p. 36.)

The Unemployment Insurance (Mercantile Marine) (Collection of Contributions) (Amendment) Regulations, 1928, dated 31 December 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 and 11 Geo. V., ch. 30), and the Widows', Orphans' and Old-Age Contributory Pensions Act, 1925 (15 and 16 Geo. V, ch. 70). (S. R. and O., 1928, No. 1069.)

Northern Ireland.

An Act to prolong the time for the operation of section one of the Housing Act (Northern Ireland), 1927 (18 and 19 Geo. V, ch. 23). Dated 18 December 1928.

The Unemployment Insurance (Insurance Industry Special Scheme) (Variation and Amendment) Special Order (Northern Ireland), 1928, dated 31 May 1928, made by the Ministry of Labour for Northern Ireland under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 and 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. and O. of Northern Ireland, 1928, No. 123.)

Order in Council of the Governor of Northern Ireland, dated 6 November 1928, made under section 24 of the National Health Insurance Act, 1928. (Statutes, Regulations and Orders relating to National Health Insurance, Part I, p. 200.)

GREECE

Laws.

Act to ratify the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Greece and Germany, signed in Berlin on 24 March 1928. Dated 15 July 1928. (Eph. Kyb., I, 1928, No. 132, p. 989.)

Act to ratify the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Greece and Albania, signed at Athens on 13 October 1926. Dated 2 October 1928. (Eph. Kyb., I, 1928, No. 212, p. 1837.)

Act No. 3685, respecting the laying of steamboats alongside quays in ports and the granting of unemployment relief to boatmen. Dated 8 December 1928. (Eph. Kyb., I, 1928, No. 260, p. 2315.)

Act No. 3714, to ratify the Legislative Decree of 10 August 1928, respecting the organisation of services in the Ministry of Public Health, Insurance, and Poor Relief. Dated 24 December 1928. (Eph. Kyb., I, 1928, No. 274, p. 2428.)

Orders.

Decree respecting Sunday rest in restaurants, public houses, eating houses, and cabarets in the Piraeus during the winter season. Dated 19 November 1928. (Eph. Kyb., I, 1928, No. 242, p. 2151.)

Decree respecting the closing in rotation of eating houses and cabarets in Athens. Dated 19 November 1928. (Eph. Kyb., I, 1928, No. 242, p. 2151.)

* Decree respecting the interpretation of the provisions of the Decree of 8 July 1925 respecting the eight-hour day in tobacco warehouses and factories. Dated 23 November 1928. (Eph. Kyb., I, 1928, No. 250, p. 2231.)

Decree respecting the position of salaried employees in case of mobilisation. Dated 9 December 1928. (Eph. Kyb., I, 1928, No. 264, p. 2358.)

HONG KONG

Notification No. 665. Regulations made by the Governor in Council under sections 10 (6), 14 (7), 37 (2), and 42 (1) of the Merchant Shipping Ordinance, 1899, Ordinance No. 10 of 1899, on 6 December 1928. (Hong Kong Government Gazette, 1928, No. 54, p. 538.)

ITALY

Laws.

Legge 2 dicembre 1928, n. 2833. Modificazione dei Regi decreti-legge 17 settembre 1925, n. 1819, e 17 febbraio 1927, n. 262, sulla costituzione delle Commissioni per i sinistri marittimi. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3270.) (G. U., 1928, No. 298, p. 6210.)

[Act No. 2833, to amend Royal Legislative Decrees No. 1819 of 17 September 1925 and No. 262 of 17 February 1927 respecting the composition of the boards to enquire into maritime accidents. Dated 2 December 1928.]

Legge 6 dicembre 1928, n. 2838. Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 8 maggio 1927, n. 798, concernente l'ordinamento del servizio di assistenza dei fanciulli illegittimi abbandonati o esposti all' abbandono. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3298.) (G. U., 1928, No. 301, p. 6271.)

[Act No. 2838, to ratify Royal Legislative Decree No. 798 of 8 May 1927 respecting the organisation of the department for the relief of deserted or neglected illegitimate children. Dated 6 December 1928.]

Legge 6 dicembre 1928, n. 2940. Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 20 novembre 1927, n. 2525, portante modificazioni alle disposizioni in vigore sulla pesca. (Numero di pubblicazione : 76.) (G. U., 1929, No. 5, p. 86.)

[Act No. 2940, to ratify Royal Legislative Decree No. 2525 of 20 November 1927 to amend the provisions in force respecting fisheries. Dated 6 December 1928.]

Legge 9 dicembre 1928, n. 2693. Ordinamento e attribuzioni del Gran Consiglio del Fascismo. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3127.) (G. U., 1928, No. 287, p. 5978.)

[Act No. 2693 : organisation and powers of the Fascist Grand Council. Dated 9 December 1928.]

Legge 13 dicembre 1928, n. 2832. Delega al Governo del Re ad emanare norme, aventi forza di legge, per la completa attuazione della Carta del Lavoro. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3269.) (G. U., 1928, No. 298, p. 6210.)

[Act No. 2832, to empower His Majesty's Government to issue regulations having the force of law for putting the Labour Charter into full operation. Dated 13 December 1928.]

Legge 13 dicembre 1928, n. 3107. Conversione in legge, con modifiche, del R. decreto-legge 16 dicembre 1926, n. 2265, concernente l'istituzione dell' Ente nazionale serico. (Numero di pubblicazione : 154.) (G. U., 1929, No. 10, p. 184.)

[Act No. 3107, to ratify and amend Royal Legislative Decree No. 2265 of 16 December 1926 respecting the institution of the National Silk Association. Dated 13 December 1928.]

Legge 20 dicembre 1928, n. 3093. Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 29 luglio 1928, n. 1843, contenente le norme per la disciplina dell' industria della panificazione. (Numero di pubblicazione : 211.) (G. U., 1929, No. 13, p. 230.)

[Act No. 3093, to ratify Royal Legislative Decree No. 1843 of 28 July 1928 issuing rules for the bakery trade. Dated 20 December 1928.]

Legge 24 dicembre 1928, n. 3117. Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 3 agosto 1928, n. 1800, contenente provvedimenti a favore degli invalidi e mutilati di guerra e degli ex combattenti appartenenti al cessato personale del servizio telefonico dello Stato. (Numero di pubblicazione : 253.) (G. U., 1929, No. 17, p. 327.)

[Act No. 3117, to ratify Royal Legislative Decree No. 1800 of 3 August 1928 issuing provisions respecting persons disabled in the war and ex-combatants belonging to the former State Telephone Department staff. Dated 24 December 1928.]

Legge 24 dicembre 1928, n. 3143. Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 8 novembre 1928, n. 2629, che modifica l'art. 11 del R. decreto-legge 27 ottobre 1927, n. 2055, sulla assicurazione obbligatoria contro la tubercolosi. (Numero di pubblicazione : 294.) (G. U., 1929, No. 18, p. 355.)

[Act No. 3143, to ratify Royal Legislative Decree No. 2629 of 8 November 1928, amending section 11 of the Royal Legislative Decree No. 2055 of 27 October 1927 respecting compulsory insurance against tuberculosis. Dated 24 December 1928.]

Legge 25 dicembre 1928, n. 3041. Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 14 giugno 1928, n. 1647, che autorizza ad emanare norme per la tutela della vita umana in mare. (Numero di pubblicazione : 189.) (G. U., 1929, No. 12, p. 207.)

[Act No. 3041, to ratify Royal Legislative Decree No. 1647 of 14 June 1928 to authorise the issue of rules for the safety of life at sea. Dated 25 December 1928.]

Legge 31 dicembre 1928. n. 3056. Limitazione del numero di determinate categorie delle persone addette nei porti. (Numero di pubblicazione : 162.) (G. U., 1929, No. 11, p. 197.)

[Act No. 3056, to limit the numbers of certain classes of persons working in ports. Dated 31 December 1928.]

Legge 31 dicembre 1928, n. 3119. Giurisdizione civile dei comandanti di porto. (Numero di pubblicazione : 379.) (G. U., 1929, No. 23, p. 454.)

[Act No. 3119, respecting the civil jurisdiction of harbourmasters. Dated 31 December 1928.]

Orders.

Regio decreto 6 dicembre 1928, n. 3222. Norme per l'attuazione del R. decreto 29 marzo 1928, n. 1003, sulla disciplina nazionale della domanda e dell' offerta di lavoro. (Numero di pubblicazione : 309.) (G. U., 1929, No. 18, p. 361.)

[Royal Decree No. 3222, to issue regulations under Royal Legislative Decree No. 1003 of 29 March 1928 respecting the national organisation of labour supply and demand. Dated 6 December 1928.]

Decreto ministeriale 7 dicembre 1928. Istituzione di un Ufficio del lavoro presso la Capitaneria di porto di Castellammare di Stabia. (G. U., 1928, No. 299, p. 6228.)

[Ministerial Decree to establish a dock labour office under the harbour authority of Castellammare di Stabia. Dated 7 December 1928.]

Regio decreto 20 dicembre 1928, n. 3347. Proroga, per l'anno 1929, delle disposizioni per l'applicazione dei contributi sindacali obbligatori a carico dei datori di lavoro agricolo, dei mezzadri e dei coloni parziari. (Numero di pubblicazione : 474.) (G. U., 1928, No. 30, p. 579.)

[Royal Decree No. 3347, to continue for the year 1929 the provisions respecting the application of the compulsory contributions to trade associations due from agricultural employers, métayers and other share tenants. Dated 20 December 1928.]

Regio decreto 31 dicembre 1928, n. 3113. Costituzione del Sindicato obbligatorio marittimo dell' Alto e Medio Adriatico per l'assicurazione della gente di mare contro gli infortuni del lavoro. (Numero di pubblicazione : 281.) (G. U., 1929, No. 17, p. 339.)

[Royal Decree No. 3113, to establish the Compulsory Maritime Association of the Upper and Middle Adriatic for the insurance of seamen against industrial accidents. Dated 31 December 1928.]

JOHORE

Notification No. 665. Rules under the Labour Code, 1924 (section 135 (ii) (*b*), framed by the Indian Immigration Committee for the payment of transport expenses of Indian immigrant labourers. Gazetted 26 December 1928. (Johore Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. XVIII, No. 92, p. 1133.)

Notification No. 666 under section 54 A of the Labour Code, 1924. Abstract of labour law relating to Indian labourers. Gazetted 26 December 1928. (Johore Government Gazette, 1928, Vol. XVIII, No. 92, p. 1134.)

KENYA

An Ordinance to provide for the control of traffic on roads and for the licensing and taxation of vehicles used thereon. No. 26 of 1928. Assented to 27 December 1928. (Official Gazette of Kenya, 1929, No. 74, p. 2037.)

An Ordinance to provide for the regulation and control of divisions of land. No. 32 of 1928. Assented to 31 December 1928. (Official Gazette of Kenya, 1928, No. 75, p. 4.)

An Ordinance to provide for the regulation, control and management of the harbours in the Colony and Protectorate of Kenya, and for matters incidental thereto. No. 33 of 1928. Assented to 31 December 1928. (Official Gazette of Kenya, 1928, No. 75, p. 9.)

LEEWARD ISLANDS

Antigua.

An Ordinance to amend the Lead Paint (Protection against Poisoning) Ordinance, 1928. No. 16 of 1928. Assented to 29 December 1928.

An Ordinance to provide for the licensing and regulation of motor vehicles plying for hire, and the licensing of the drivers thereof. No. 19 of 1928. Assented to 29 December 1928.

LUXEMBURG

Arrêté grand-ducal du 26 octobre 1928, portant fixation du maximum du salaire normal en matière d'assurance-maladie.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 26. Oktober 1928, betreffend Festsetzung des Hochstgrundlohnes in Sachen der Krankenversicherung.

(Mémorial, 1928, No. 50, p. 825.)

NETHERLANDS

Besluit van den 6den December 1928, tot vaststelling van een Regeling van het Rijkstoezicht op de Luchtvaart. (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 454.)

[Decree to issue regulations for State supervision of aerial navigation. Dated 6 December 1928.]

Besluit van den 14den December 1928, tot wijziging van het Koninklijk besluit van 3 September 1921 (Staatsblad No. 1042) tot vaststelling van een algemeenen maatregel van bestuur als bedoeld in artikel 64, sub 5, der Ongevallenwet 1921, zoals dat besluit laatstelijk is gewijzigd bij Koninklijk besluit van 22 Mei 1924 (Staatsblad No. 255). (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 458.)

[Decree to amend the Royal Decree of 3 September 1921 (Staatsblad, No. 1042), to issue general administrative regulations as provided in section 64 (5) of the Accidents Act, 1921, as last amended by Royal Decree of 22 May 1924 (Staatsblad No. 255). Dated 14 December 1928.]

* Besluit van den 21sten December 1928, tot nadere wijziging van het Koninklijk besluit van 4 October 1920 (Staatsblad No. 773) gewijzigd bij het Koninklijk besluit van 3 Maart 1924 (Staatsblad No. 90), tot vaststelling van een algemeenen maatregel van bestuur, als bedoeld bij artikel 82 der Arbeidswet 1919. (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 492.)

[Decree further to amend the Royal Decree of 4 October 1920 (Staatsblad, No. 773), amended by the Royal Decree of 3 March 1924 (Staatsblad No. 90), to issue public administrative regulations as provided in section 82 of the Labour Act, 1919. Dated 21 December 1928.]

Besluit van den 21sten December 1928, tot nadere wijziging van het Koninklijk besluit van den 22sten September 1909 (Staatsblad No. 316) tot uitvoering van artikel 10 der Schepenwet. (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 494.)

[Decree further to amend the Royal Decree of 22 September 1909 (Staatsblad, No. 316), under section 10 of the Shipping Act. Dated 21 December 1928.]

Besluit van den 28sten December 1928, tot wijziking van het Koninklijk besluit van 28 Februari 1919 (Staatsblad, No. 54), tot vaststelling van een algemeenen maatregel van bestuur, als bedoeld bij de artikelen 1 en 2 der Radenwet zooals dat laatstelijk id gewijzigd bij Koninklijk besluit van 11 Maart 1925 (Staatsblad, No. 73). (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 501.)

[Decree to amend the Royal Decree of 28 February 1919 (Staatsblad, No. 54), to issue public administrative regulations under sections 1 and 2 of the Councils Act, as last amended by Royal Decree of 11 March 1925 (Staatsblad, No. 73). Dated 28 December 1928.]

Besluit van den 28sten December 1928, tot herziening van het in Artikel 40, eerste lid, der Ongevallenwet 1921 bedoelde tarief, vastgesteld bij Koninklijk besluit van 16 April 1925 (Staatsblad, No. 144). (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 503.)

[Decree to revise the scale prescribed by section 40 (1) of the Accidents Act, 1921, and issued by Royal Decree of 16 April 1925 (Staatsblad, No. 144). Dated 28 December 1928.]

Besluit van den 28sten December 1928, bepalende de bekendmaking in het Staatsblad van het op 12 Mei 1927 te Guatemala tusschen Nederland en Guatemala gesloten Handelsverdrag (Staatsblad, 1927, No. 446.). (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 505.)

[Decree to promulgate in the Staatsblad the Treaty of Commerce between the Netherlands and Guatemala signed on 12 May 1927 in Guatemala. Dated 28 December 1928.]

NEW HEBRIDES CONDOMINIUM

Joint Regulation No. 3 of 1928 to control the storage and sale of explosives. Dated 26 September 1928.

Arrêté conjoint No. 3 réglementant le dépôt et la vente des explosifs et accessoires inflammables aux Nouvelles-Hébrides. Du 26 septembre 1928.

(New Hebrides Condominium Gazette, 1928, No. 20, p. 1.)

NIGERIA

An Ordinance to amend the European Officers' Pensions Ordinance. No. 23 of 1928. Assented to 26 November 1928. (Supplement to the Nigeria Gazette, 29 November 1928, No. 68, ch. 23.)

An Ordinance to amend the Police Ordinance. No. 25 of 1928. Assented to 5 December 1928. (Supplement to the Nigeria Gazette, 6 December 1928, No. 71, ch. 25.)

An Ordinance further to amend the Widows' and Orphans' Pension Ordinance. No. 32 of 1928. Assented to 6 December 1928. (Supplement to the Nigeria Gazette, 13 December 1928, No. 72, ch. 32.)

An Ordinance to amend the Master and Servant Ordinance. No. 40 of 1928. Assented to 13 December 1928. (Supplement to the Nigeria Gazette, 13 December 1928, No. 72, ch. 40.)

NORTHERN RHODESIA

An Ordinance to amend and consolidate the law relating to Native Tax. No. 5 of 1928. Assented to 28 April 1928. (Northern Rhodesia Government Gazette, 1928, No. 329, p. 90.)

Government Notice No. 144 of 1928 under the Northern Rhodesia Native Labour and Recruiting Proclamation, 1917 : The Native Labour (Medical) Regulations, 1928. Dated 24 September 1928. (Northern Rhodesia Government Gazette, 1928, No. 342, p. 188.)

Government Notice No. 192 of 1928 : the Civil Servants (Native Employees) Rules, 1928. Dated 24 December 1928. (Northern Rhodesia Government Gazette, 28 December 1928, p. 265.)

NORWAY

Kongelig resolusjon, hvorved bestemmes : I. Lov av 22 juni 1928 nr. 6 om forandring i lov om ulykkesforsikring for industriarbeidere om. v. av 13 august 1915 med tilleggslover settes, forsavidt avsnitt I angar, i kraft fra 1 januar 1929. II. Med hjemmel i sammelov bestemmes at folgende bedriftssykdommer likestilles med ulykker i lov om ulykkesforsikring for industriarbeidere m. v. av 13 august 1915 med tilleggslover : 1. Forgiftning ved bly, dets legeringer og forbindelser. 2. Forgiftning ved kviksölv, dets amalgamer og forbindelser. 3. Forgiftning ved fosfor og dets forbindelser. 4. Miltbrandsmitte. 7 desember 1928. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1928, No. 46, p. 729.)

[Royal Resolution to provide that : (I) Division I of Act No. 6 of 22 June 1928, to amend the Act of 13 August 1915 respecting accident insurance for industrial workers, etc., and the Acts to supplement the same, shall come into operation on 1 January 1929 ; (II) In pursuance of the above-mentioned Act, the following occupational diseases shall be placed on the same footing as accidents under the Act of 13 August 1915, respecting accident insurance for industrial workers, etc., and the Acts to supplement the same, viz. : (1) poisoning by lead, its alloys and compounds ; (2) poisoning by mercury, its amalgams and compounds ; (3) poisoning by phosphorus and its compounds : (4) anthrax infection. Dated 7 December 1928.]

Kongelig resolusjon, hvorved i henhold til § 36 i lov om maskinister pa motorfartöier av handelsmarinen av 9 februar 1923 bestemmes, at den senest ved kongelig resolusjon av 22 juni 1928 fastsatte utsettelse med lovens ikrafttreden forlenges til 1 juli 1929. 21 desember 1928. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1928, No. 48, p. 746.)

[Royal Resolution under section 36 of the Act of 9 February 1923, respecting engineers on motor vessels in the merchant service, to provide that the delay in the coming into operation of the Act last extended by Royal Resolution of 22 June 1928 shall be extended to 1 July 1929. Dated 21 December 1928.]

POLAND

Ustawa z dnia 19 grudnia 1928 r. w sprawie przedluzenia terminu przedawnienia rent i rat rentowych na obszarze województw poznanskiego i pomorskiego oraz górnoslaskiej czesci województwa slaskiego. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 105, poz. 951, p. 2183.)

[Act to prolong the period of prescription for pensions and instalments of pensions in the provinces of Posen and Pomerania and in the Upper Silesian part of the province of Silesia. Dated 19 December 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Sprawiedliwozci i Ministra Pracyji Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 4 grudnia 1928 r. wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrami : Spraw Wewnetrznych, Skarbu, Rolnictwa oraz Przemyslu i Handlu – w sprawie przeksztalcenia sadow przemyslowych w Bielsku, Krakowie i Lwowie na sady pracy oraz zmiany granic okregow niektórych z tych sadow. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 98, póz. 870, p. 2079.)

[Order of the Minister of Justice and the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, in agreement with the Ministers of the Interior, Agriculture, and Commerce and Industry, respecting the conversion of the industrial courts of Bielitz, Cracow, and Lemberg into Labour Courts, and the alteration of the areas of certain of these courts. Dated 4 December 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Sprawiedliwosci oraz Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej w porozumieniu z Ministrami : Spraw Wewnetrznych, Skarbu, Rolnictwa oraz Przemyslu i Handlu z dnia 5 grudnia 1928 r. o ustanowieniu sadu pracy w Bialej. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 98, poz. 872, p. 2080.)

[Order of the Minister of Justice and the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, in agreement with the Ministers of the Interior, Agriculture, Finance, and Commerce and Industry, respecting the establishment of a Labour Court at Biala. Dated 5 December 1928.]

[Similar Orders for Warsaw (poz. 871), Bialystok (poz. 873), Droholycz (poz. 874), Lodz (poz. 875), Sosnowice and Dabrowa Gornicza (poz. 876), Vilna (poz. 877).]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 10 grudnia 1928 r. wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrami : Przemyslu i Handlu, Spraw Wojskowych, Skarbu, Wyznan Religijnych i Oswiecenia Publicznego, Rolnictwa, Komunikacji, Robót Publicznych, Poczt i Telegrafów oraz Reform Rolnych w sprawie wykazów placy pracowników umyslowych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 102, poz. 909, p. 2104.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, in agreement with the Ministers of Commerce and Industry, War, Finance, Religious Instruction and Education, Agriculture, Communications, Public Works, Posts and Telegraphs, and Agrarian Reform respecting salary lists for intellectual workers. Dated 10 December 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 14 grudnia 1928 r. w porozumieniu z Ministrem Skarbu. Ministrem Przemyslu i Handlu, Ministrem Spraw Wewnetrznych Ministrem Robót Publicznych, Ministrem Komunikacji i Ministrem Rolnictwa w sprawie uprawnien robotników sezonowych do korzystania ze swiadczen zabezpieczeniowych w okresie sezonu martwego 1928/1929 r. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 103, poz. 926, p. 2115.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare in agreement with the Ministers of Finance, Commerce and Industry, the Interior, Public Works, Communications, and Agriculture, respecting the right of seasonal workers to insurance benefits during the off-season, 1928-1929. Dated 14 December 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej w porozumieniu z Ministrem Spraw Zagranicznych z dnia 24 grudnia 1928 r. w sprawie przedluzenia mocy obowiazujacej rozporzadzenia Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej w porozumieniu z Ministrem Spraw Zagranicznych z dnia 9 lutego 1928 r. w sprawie czesciowego wstrzymania emigracji. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, 105, poz. 960, p. 2186.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, issued in agreement with the Minister of Foreign Affairs, respecting the prolongation of the period of operation of the Order of 9 February 1928 issued by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare in agreement with the Minister of Foreign Affairs respecting restrictions upon emigration. Dated 24 December 1928.]

PORTUGUESE COLONIES

Angola.

Diploma Legislativo no. 47 : Define e claramente regula os casos em que jos servidores do Estado, na Colonia, têm direito ao abôné do subsidio de familia. 15 de Novembro de 1928. (Boletim Oficial da Colonia de Angola, 1928, I Serie, No. 45, p. 644.)

[Legislative Decree No. 47, to define and issue detailed regulations for the cases in which employees of the State in the colony are entitled to draw a family allowance. Dated 15 November 1928.]

Manica and Sofala.

Orden no. 5830. Determina que seja adoptado e posto em vigor no Territorio o Diploma Legislativo da Colonia de Moçambique, no. 36 de 12 de Novembro de 1927. 10 de Dezembro de 1928. (Boletim da Companhia de Moçambique, 1928, No. 24, p. 383.)

[Order No. 5830, to adopt and bring into operation in the Territory Legislative Decree of the Colony of Mozambique No. 36 of 12 November 1927 (respecting the distinctive characteristics of natives). Dated 10 December 1928.]

Portuguese Guinea.

Diploma legislativo no. 425, extinguindo o subsidio de familia e fixando os vencimentos dos funcionarios civis e militares desta colónia. 4 de Dezembro de 1928. (Boletim Oficial, 1928, No. 49, p. 639.)

[Legislative Decree No. 425, to abolish the family allowance and fix the salaries of the civil and military employees of the Colony. Dated 4 December 1928.]

Portaria no. 102, fixando o horario de trabalho em todas as repartiçoes publicas da Colonia. 11 de Dezembro de 1928. (Boletim Oficial, 1928, No. 50, p. 655.)

[Order No. 102, to fix the hours of work in all the public offices of the Colony. Dated 11 December 1928.]

Portaria No. 106 : Regulamento das Intendências. 27 de Dezembro de 1928. (Boletim Oficial, 1928, Suplemento ao No. 52, No. 26, 1928, p. 1.)

[Order No. 106, to issue regulations for the administration of the provinces. Dated 27 December 1928.]

San Tomé and Principe Islands.

Diploma Legislativo no. 76 — Aprovando o Regulamento do trabalho dos presos. 7 de Dezembro de 1928. (Boletim Oficial de S. Tomé e Principé, 1928, No. 49, p. 501.)

[Legislative Decree No. 76, to approve the regulations for prison labour. Dated December 1928.]

Portaria no. 99 — Aprovando o regulamento interno da Curadoria Geral dos Serviçais e Colonos. 6 de Dezembro de 1928. (Boletim Oficial de S. Tomé e Principe, 1928, No. 19, Suplemento ao No. 49, p. 1.)

[Order No. 99, to approve the regulations for the work of the Department of the Curator-General of Workers and Settlers. Dated 6 December 1928.]

SPAIN

Real orden relativa a los asesoramientos técnicos que juzguen necesarios los Presidentes de los Comités paritarios para resolver las questiones sometidas a su fallo. 9 de agosto de 1928. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1928, No. 865, p. 883.)

[Royal Order respecting the appointment of technical assessors which the chairmen of the joint committees consider necessary for the settlement of the questions referred to them for decision. Dated 9 August 1928.]

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

Notification No. 2174 under section 198 (2) of Ordinance No. 197 (Labour) [to impose the undermentioned condition upon which emigration to Christmas Island is permitted in addition to the conditions specified in Notification No. 859 published in the Gazette of 13 May 1927 : That the maximum amount recoverable from any labourer in respect of all advances of wages or money made to him before emigration by his employer shall be $ 8]. Dated 31 October 1928. (Straits Settlements Government Gazette, 1928, No. 75, p. 1805.)

Notification No. 2175 : Rules framed by the Indian Immigration Committee, under section 125 (2) (*b*) of Ordinance No. 197 (Labour), for the payment of transport expenses of Indian immigrant labourers. Dated 31 October 1928. (Straits Settlements Government Gazette, 1928, No. 75, p. 1806.)

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

An Ordinance to amend the Agricultural Credit Societies Ordinance. No. 21 of 1928. Assented to 8 November 1928.

An Ordinance to amend the Agricultural Bank Ordinance. No. 22 of 1928. Assented to 8 November 1928.

An Ordinance to amend the Pensions Ordinance. No. 23 of 1928. Assented to 8 November 1928.

An Ordinance to make such amendments of the Workmen's Compensation Ordinance, 1926, as are necessary to give effect to a certain resolution adopted by an Imperial Conference held in London in the year nineteen hundred and twenty-six. No. 34 of 1928. Assented to 15 December 1928.

VENEZUELA

Decreto Reglementario de la Ley de Extranjeros. 10 de diciembre de 1928. (Gaceta Oficial, 1928, No. 16, 682, p. 71717.)

[Decree issuing regulations under the Aliens Act. Dated 10 December 1928.]

LEGISLATION OF 1929

AUSTRALIA

Western Australia.

Amendments to the Regulations [of 24 June 1925] under "The Workers' Compensation Act, 1912-1924". Dated 5 January 1929. (Government Gazette of W. A., 1929, No. 3, p. 51.)

BRITISH GUIANA

An Ordinance to make provision for the granting of licences for the sale of intoxicating liquor and for the regulation of such sale and the control of licensed premises. No. 1 of 1929. Assented to 25 January 1929. (Official Gazette, 1929, Vol. LXVII, No. 5, p. 171.)

BULGARIA

Ukase No. 3 : Decree to ratify the Recommendations and Draft Conventions adopted by the International Labour Organisation at the Sixth and Seventh Sessions of the International Labour Conference held at Geneva in 1924 and 1925. Dated 17 January 1929. (Drj. Vest., 1929, No. 253, p. 2.)

CHILE

Ley número 4531. — Sobre Cooperativas Agricolas. 14 de Enero de 1929. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 15273, p. 245.)

[Act No. 4531, respecting agricultural co-operative societies. Dated 14 January 1929.]

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Constitución de la República Dominicana. 9 de Enero de 1929. (Gaceta Oficial, 19 de Enero de 1929.)

[Constitution of the Dominican Republic. Dated 9 January 1929.]

FRANCE

Décret instituant à la Martinique une commission consultative du travail et de l'agriculture. Du 11 janvier 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 12, p. 529.)

Décret modifiant et complétant le décret du 25 octobre 1922 sur les soins gratuits aux bénéficiaires de la loi du 31 mars 1919. Du 26 janvier 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 27, p. 1433.)

Décret portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'exécution de l'article 5 de la loi du 30 mars 1928 relative au statut du personnel naviguant de l'aéronautique. Du 26 janvier 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 28, p. 1462.)

Décret modifiant le paragraphe 2 de l'article 3 du décret du 19 juillet 1925 déterminant les conditions d'application à la Martinique, la Guadeloupe et la Réunion de la loi du 9 avril 1898 et des lois subséquentes sur la responsabilité des accidents du travail. Du 30 janvier 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 28, p. 1472.)

Décret modifiant le paragraphe 2 de l'article 3 du décret du 19 juillet 1925 déterminant les conditions d'application à la Guyane de la loi du 9 avril 1898 et des lois subséquentes sur la responsabilité des accidents du travail. Du 30 janvier 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 28, p. 1473.)

Décret créant en Indochine une juridiction spéciale pour la répression des infractions au contrat de travail. Du 30 janvier 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 28, p. 1473.)

Instruction relative à l'application des dispositions des articles 76 à 79, 81, 84, 85 et 153 de la loi du 30 décembre 1928 portant fixation du budget général pour l'exercice 1929. Du 6 février 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 36, p. 1786.)

[Allocations, etc., aux veuves et orphelins de militaires ou marins de carrière et de fonctionnaires civils décédés avant le 17 avril 1924 ; allocation spéciale supplémentaire aux grands invalides de la guerre.]

GERMANY

Gesetz über den Handels- und Schiffahrtsvertrag [1. September 1928] zwischen dem Deutschen Reiche und der Südafrikanischen Union. Vom 3. Januar 1929. (R. G. Bl., II, 1929, No. 3, p. 15.)

Gesetz zur Änderung der Gewerbeordnung (Handwerks-Novelle). Vom 11. Februar 1929. (R. G. Bl., I, 1929, No. 7, p. 21.)

Verordnung betreffend Krankenfürsorge auf Kauffahrteischiffen. Vom 4. Januar 1929. (R. G. Bl., II, 1929, No. 4, p. 33.)

Wahlordnung für die Wahl der Beisitzer in den Spruchbehörden der Angestelltenversicherung. Vom 31. Januar 1929. (R. G. Bl., I, 1929, No. 5, p. 15.)

* Zweite Verordnung über Ausdehnung der Unfallversicherung auf Berufskrankheiten. Vom 11. Februar 1929. (R. G. Bl., I, 1929, No. 7, p. 27.)

GREAT BRITAIN

Workmen's Compensation (Industrial Diseases) Consolidation Order, 1929. Dated 1 January 1929. (S. R. and O., 1929, No. 2.)

HUNGARY

* 1929. évi V. Törvénycikk a sütöipari munkanak szabalyozasarol szolo 1923 : XV. Törvénycikk egyes rendelkezéseinek modositasarol. 1929 évi januar hó 3-napjan. (Országos Törvénytar, 1929. évi januar ho 9-én, p. 10.)

[Act No. V of 1929, to amend certain provisions of Act No. XV of 1923 concerning the regulation of employment in the bakery trade. Dated 3 January 1929.]

INDIA

Notification (Department of Commerce) No. 236-C. (24) [under section 12 of the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act, 1925 (XII of 1925) : amendment in the Indian Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Rules, 1925]. Dated 19 January 1929. (Gazette of India, 1929, Part I, No. 3, p. 23.)

IRISH FREE STATE

National Health Insurance. Additional Benefits Regulations, 1929. No. 3 of 1929. Dated 7 February 1929. (S. R. and O. 1929, No. 3.)

ITALY

Legge 3 gennaio 1929, n. 16. Disposizioni integrative sui Consigli ed Uffic provinciali dell' economia. (Numero di pubblicazione : 322.) (G. U., 1929, No. 19 p. 379.)

[Act No. 16, to issue supplementary provisions respecting the provincial economic councils and offices. Dated 3 January 1929.]

* Legge 10 gennaio 1929, n. 65. Assicurazione obbligatoria per le malattie e per l'assistenza sociale della gente del mare e dell' aria. (Numero di pubblicazione : 518.) (G. U., 1929, No. 33, p. 619.)

[Act No. 65, respecting compulsory sickness insurance and social welfare for seamen and airmen. Dated 10 January 1929.]

Decreto ministeriale 7 gennaio 1929. Determinazione della tariffa dei contributi da versarsi nell' anno 1929 all' Associazione nazionale per la prevenzione degli infortuni da parte degli enti assicuratori contro gli infortuni sul lavoro. (G. U., 1929, No. 12, p. 214.)

[Ministerial Decree to fix the scale of contributions to be paid for the year 1929 to the National Accident Prevention Association by the industrial accident insurance institutions. Dated 7 January 1929.]

LUXEMBURG

* Loi du 5 janvier 1929 sur l'apprentissage.
Gesetz vom 5. Januar 1929 über das Lehrlingswesen.
(Memorial, 1929, No. 3, p. 17.)

MEXICO (UNITED STATES OF)

Federal District.

* Reglamento de la Industria del Pan, en el Distrito federal. 9 de enero de 1929. (Diario Oficial, 15 de enero de 1929, No. 12, sección primera, p. 7.)

[Regulations for the bakery industry in the Federal District. Dated 9 January 1929.]

PORTUGAL

Decreto No. 16386 — Reune num so diploma todas as disposiçoes acêrca da permanência de estrangeiros em Portugal. 18 de Janeiro de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 15, p. 132.)

[Decree No. 16386, to consolidate the provisions respecting the sojourn of aliens in Portugal. Dated 18 January 1929.]

Decreto No. 16399 — Manda passar para o Ministério da Marinha todos os serviços que interessam ao nosso fomento maritimo comercial, à marinha mercante nacional, à manutençao e desenvolvimento do nosso comércio maritimo, ao melhoramento e desenvolvimento do tráfego maritimo comercial e à frequência dos nossos portos pola marinha de comércio estrangeira e os relativos às pescas mari-

timas. 22 de Janeiro de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 18, p. 149 ; Erratum : No. 20, p. 278.)

[Decree No. 16399, to transfer to the Ministry of Shipping all the departments concerned in the facilitation of national maritime commerce, the national merchant service, the maintenance and development of national maritime commerce, the improvement and development of maritime commercial traffic, and the frequenting of national ports by foreign merchant vessels, and also the departments dealing with sea fisheries. Dated 22 January 1929.]

Decreto No. 16443 — Aprova o Codigo de Invalidos. 1 de Fevereiro de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 26, p. 313.)

[Decree No. 16443, to approve the War Disablement Code. Dated 1 February 1929.]

Decreto No. 16446 — Esclarece algumas das bases do *modus vivendi* para o fornecimento de mao de obra a S. Tomé e Principe, celebrado entre esta colónia e a de Angola. — Fixa novas vantagens para ambas as colónias e para os próprios serviçais. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 26, p. 324.)

[Decree No. 16446, to explain certain provisions of the Agreement (of 28 April 1926), for the supply of labour to San Tomé and Principe, concluded by that Colony with Angola, and to grant new advantages to both colonies and to their workers. Dated 1 February 1929.]

Decreto No. 16473 — Promulga o estatuto politico, civil e criminal dos indigenas. 6 de Fevereiro de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 30, p. 386.)

[Decree No. 16473, to promulgate the Political, Civil and Criminal By-laws for natives. Dated 6 February 1929.]

Decreto No. 16474 — Promulgua o diploma orgânico das relaçoes de direito privado entre indigenas e nao indigenas. 6 de Fevereiro de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno 1929, No. 30, p. 389.)

[Decree No. 16474, to promulgate the fundamental provisions respecting private legal relations between natives and non-natives. Dated 6 February 1929.]

Decreto No. 16475 — Institui o regime de reserva de mao de obra no território do distrito de Quelimane na colónia de Moçambique e no da área de todos os prazos situados noutras regioes da mesma colónia. 6 de Fevereiro de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 30, p. 392.)

[Decree No. 16475 to institute a labour reserve in the district of Quelimane in the Colony of Mozambique and in the area of every *prazo* estate situated in other regions of the said Colony. Dated 6 February 1929.]

RUMANIA

Decizie Ministrului Cultelor si Artelor No. 129. — Aplicarea unor articolo din noua lege a invatamântului secundar, si pentru seminarii. 3 Januarie 1929. (Monitorul Oficial, 1929, No. 11, p. 318.)

[Order No. 129 of the Minister of Education and the Arts, to extend certain sections of the new Secondary Education Act to Catholic seminaries. Dated 3 January 1929.]

* Decizie Consiliului de Ministri No. 5. Fond pentru ajutorarea celor lipsiti de lucru. 8 Januarie 1929. (Monitorul Oficial, 1929, No. 12, p. 335.)

[Order No. 5 of the Council of Ministers, to establish a fund for the relief of the unemployed. Dated 8 January 1929.]

Decret regal : Se aproba proiectul pentru modificarea art. 33 din regulamentul legii pentru infiintarea camerelor de agricultura. Nr. 52, 11 Januarie 1929. (Monitorul Oficial, 1929, No. 10, p. 286.)

[Royal Decree No. 52, to approve the draft amendment of section 33 of the Regulations under the Act to establish chambers of agriculture. Dated 11 January 1929.]

SERB-CROAT-SLOVENE KINGDOM

Act respecting the appointment, transference to another locality or post or class or to the reserve, pensioning and dismissal of State employees. Dated 12 January 1929. (Sluzbene Novine, 1929, No. 11-VI.)

SPAIN

Real decreto-ley aprobando, con el caracter de Ley, el proyecto de reforma y adaptación del Decreto-ley de 15 de Julio de 1925, sobre organización y atribuciones de los Tribunales tutelares para niños. 3 de Febrero de 1929. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1929, No. 37, p. 1059.)

[Royal Legislative Decree to approve and ratify the Bill to amend the Legislative Decree of 15 July 1925 respecting the organisation and functions of the juvenile courts. Dated 3 February 1929.]

Real decreto-ley reorganizando los Patronales provinciales y locales de Acción Social y Emigración. 4 de Febrero de 1929. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1929, No. 38, p. 1099.)

[Royal Legislative Decree to reorganise the provincial and local social welfare and emigration committees. Dated 4 February 1929.]

Real decreto aprobando el Reglamento, que se inserta, para la ejecución de la ley de Tribunales Tutelares de Menores. 3 de Febrero de 1929. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1929, No. 38, p. 1100.)

[Royal Decree to approve the regulations under the Act respecting juvenile courts. Dated 3 February 1929.]

Real decreto disponiendo que el Consejo de Cultura Social del Ministerio de Trabajo y Previsión tenga bajo su dirección y gobierno los organismos que se indican. 4 de Febrero de 1929. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1929, No. 39, p. 1131.)

[Royal Decree to specify the organisations to be placed under the Council for Social Studies of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. Dated 4 February 1929.]

Real decreto disponiendo que toda persona natural o juridica que ejerza cualquier industria de transformación o transportes está obligada a llenar, suscribir y entregar en las Inspecciones Industriales, el formulario que la Dirección general de Industria proponga para la actividad de que se trate. 9 de Febrero de 1929. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1929, No. 43, p. 1206.)

[Royal Decree to provide that every person or body corporate engaged in any manufacturing or transport industry shall fill up, sign, and send in to the industrial inspectorate the form prescribed by the General Directorate of Industry for the business in question. Dated 9 February 1929.]

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

Proclamation No. 3 of 1929 under section 11 of the Industrial Training Ordinance, Chapter 150, to proclaim boilermaking to be a trade or craft to which boys may be apprenticed under the said section. Dated 12 January 1929. (Trinidad Royal Gazette, 1928, No. 3, p. 39.)

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Government Notice No. 59 (Department of Native Affairs): Labour Agents' and Employers' Recruiting Licences. Dated 11 January 1929. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1929, Vol. LXXV, No. 1751, p. 46.)

Government Notice No. 51 (Department of Railways and Harbours): Officers' Staff Regulations. Dated 11 January 1929. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1929, Vol. LXXV, No. 1751, p. 67.)

Government Notice No. 52 (Department of Railways and Harbours): Employees Staff Regulations. Dated 11 January 1929. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1929, Vol. LXXV, No. 1751, p. 68.)

URUGUAY

Decreto. Se declara obligatoria la fijación de los carteles sobre riesgo del trabajo industrial en lugar visible de los establecimientos industriales. 2 de Enero de 1929. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 6763, p. 53-A.)

[Decree to render compulsory the conspicuous display in all industrial establishments of posters concerning the dangers of industrial employment. Dated 2 January 1929.]

Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

International Labour Office. *Freedom of Association.* Vol. IV. *Italy, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, Bulgaria, Rumania.* Studies and Reports Series A (Industrial Relations), No. 31. Geneva, International Labour Office ; London, P. S. King and Son, 1928. XI + 405 pp. 5s ; $1.25.

The monographs comprised in the fourth volume of this work are arranged according to the plan adopted in the previous volumes. Each is followed by a bibliography.

—— *International Survey of Legal Decisions of Labour Law 1927.* Geneva, 1928. XLVII + 335 pp. 8s. ; $2.

The third volume of this survey, the first number of which appeared in 1926, includes for the first time a section devoted to legal decisions on labour legislation in the United States of America. The introductory "Notes on the Authorities having Jurisdiction in Labour Matters" for that country are by the former legal expert of the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics, Mr. Lindley D. Clark (now Deputy Compensation Commissioner of the Federal Employees' Compensation Commission).

Internationale Landarbeiter-Föderation. *Bericht des Sekretärs über die Tätigkeit in der Zeit von September 1926 bis August 1928.* 103 pp.

Internationale Union der Organisationen der Arbeiter und Arbeiterinnen der Lebens- und Genussmittelindustrie. *Tätigkeitsbericht des Sekretariates der I.U.L. und Berichte der angeschlossenen Organisationen an den IV. Internationalen Kongress der Lebensmittelarbeiter in Wien Juli 1928. Protokoll des IV. Kongresses der I.U.L. vom 2. bis 4. Juli 1928, Wien.* Zurich. 368 pp.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

ESTONIA

Central Bureau of Statistics. *The Estonian Year-Book 1929.* Edited by Albert PULLERITS. Tallinn. VIII + 344 pp. illustr.

On the occasion of the tenth anniversary of the independence of Estonia, a number of special surveys have been added to the current information contained in this second edition of the "Estonian Year Book". The introduction of the new currency is reflected in some of the statistical tables. The latter include index numbers of cost of living and wholesale prices for the period 1913-1928. Statistical and other information is also given on education (including vocational training), agriculture, industry, transport, foreign trade, banking, finance, the co-operative movement, labour and social welfare, etc.

FINLAND

Socialministeriet. Ministère des Affaires sociales. *Yrkesinspektionen Ar 1927. L'inspection du travail en 1927.* Helsingfors, 1929. 95 pp.

—— — — **Statistika centralbyran. Bureau de statistique.** *Arbetsstatistik i Olycksfallen i Arbetet. Ar 1924. Statistique ouvrière des accidents du travail. Année 1924.* Statistique officielle de Finlande. XXVI. Helsingfors, 1928. 94 pp.

—— —— —— —— *Arbetsstatistik i Olycksfallen i Arbetet. Ar 1925. Statistique ouvrière des accidents du travail. Année 1925.* Statistique officielle de Finlande. XXVI. Helsingfors, 1928. 94 pp.

—— —— — — —— *Statistisk Arsbok för Finland. Ny serie. Tjugusjätte Argangen 1928. Annuaire statistique de Finlande. Nouvelle série. Vingt-sixième année 1928.* Helsingfors, 1928. XXI + 353 pp.

GERMANY

Reichsgesundheitsamt. *Arbeiten aus dem Reichsgesundheitsamte.* Sechzigster Band. Zweites Heft. Berlin, 1928. Pp. 155-214.

GREAT BRITAIN

Board of Trade. In Conjunction with the **Ministry of Labour** and the **Registrar-General's Office.** *Statistical Abstract for the United Kingdom for each of the fifteen years from 1913 to 1927.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1929. xv + 377 pp. 6s. 6d.

ITALY

Istituto Nazionale di Economia agraria. *Annali dell' Osservatorio di Economia Agraria di Bologna annesso alla Cattedra di Economia Agraria del R. Instituto Superiore Agraria.* Vol. I, 1927. Piacenza, 1928. iv + 381 pp.

An experimental station to investigate difficult problems of rural economics was founded in 1926 in connection with the Higher Institute of Agriculture in Bologna and its Chair of Rural Economy. The direction of this very useful institution was entrusted to the holder of the Chair of Rural Economy, Professeur Tassinari.

The first volume of annals published by the station includes four studies. Dr. Aldo Pagani contributes a statistical and economic study concerning two regions, Emilia and Romagna, where certain questions of rural economics are the subject of much discussion, and a study on economic and agricultural conditions in the province of Ravenna. Dr. Dario Perini describes a farm in Bologna during the period 1919-1926, and Professor Tassinari presents a monograph on rent and share-farming in fruit culture. These careful and detailed studies of the regions, farms, or subjects indicated are based on an analysis of the technical agricultural factors and the economic problems involved, and are very helpful to an understanding of modern Italian agriculture.

NORWAY

Socialdepartementet. *De Internasjonale Arbeidskonferanse i Genève i 1928.* St. med. nr. 8 (1929). Socialdepartementets innstilling av 4de januar 1928, som er bifalt ved kongelig resolusjon av samme dag. Oslo, 1929. 34 pp.

Government report to the Storthing on the Eleventh Session of the International Labour Conference, to which is appended a detailed account of the proceedings prepared by the Government delegate, Mr. Th. G. Thorsen, for the Ministry of Social Affairs.

UNITED STATES

Department of Commerce. Bureau of Mines. *Coal-Mine Fatalities in the United States 1927.* By William W. Adams. Bulletin No. 293. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. vi + 120 pp. 20 cents.

Department of Labour. Bureau of Labour Statistics. *Beneficial Activities of American Trade Unions.* Bulletin No. 465. Miscellaneous Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. vi + 229 pp. 60 cents.

The book deals with an aspect of trade union activities which is too frequently overlooked. The chapters on the welfare and health activities of American trade unions are particularly valuable. An important chapter deals with the organisation of recreation by American trade unions on behalf of their members. Extensive illustrations are given showing the nature of the recreational facilities afforded. Also of importance are the chapter and illustrations showing the housing activities of various groups within the American labour movement. A further chapter, dealing with the co-operation of trade unions with employers and giving numerous instances of such co-operation, throws an interesting light on a distinctive feature of American trade unionism.

Another interesting feature of the book is the information it provides on the business enterprise of organised labour in America. An indication is given of the extent of labour interests in banking, insurance, co-operative purchase organisations, and even model farming.

—— —— *Labour Legislation of 1927.* Bulletin No. 470. Labour Laws of the United States Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. IV + 90 pp. 15 cents.

—— —— *Labour Organisations in Chile.* By Moisés Poblete Troncoso. Bulletin No. 461. Miscellaneous Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. ix + 41 pp.

This useful account of the labour movement in Chile sets forth the legal position in that country with regard to freedom of association. A classification is made of the various kinds of unions operating in Chile. The booklet reveals the importance of the hold which the labour movement there already has on the economic life of the community.

—— **Employment Service.** *Industrial, Agricultural and General Employment Prospects for 1929.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1929. II + 21 pp.

PENNSYLVANIA

Department of Public Instruction. *A Digest of the Laws Controlling School Attendance and Employment of Minors.* Harrisburg, 1928. 72 pp.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Allgemeiner freier Angestelltenbund. *Angestelltenversicherungsgesetz. Textausgabe mit den wichtigsten Ausführungsbestimmungen und Verweisungen.* Herausgegeben von Rudolf Peters. Berlin, Freier Volksverlag, 1928. 136 pp.

Arbeidernes Faglige Landsorganisation i Norge. *Fagorganisasjonen i Norge. Arbeidernes Faglige Landsorganisasjon 1899-1924.* Förste bind. Edited by Gunnar Ousland. Oslo, Det Norske Arbeiderpartis Forlag, 1927. 481 pp.

This noteworthy and well illustrated work published on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the foundation of the Norwegian Federation of Trade Unions, has been prepared under the supervision of a special committee of the Federation and is being published in two parts. The first part has now appeared. It contains a history of the origin of the Federation of Trade Unions and of its development during the first twenty-five years, and an account of the economic, cultural and political co-operation in the Norwegian labour movement, and of the Norwegian trade unions' attitude towards social legislation and their international relations (including their attitude towards the International Labour Organisation). The second part, which will also consist of about 500 octavo pages, is expected to be ready during the course of this year. It will contain a survey of the activities of the affiliated unions, a historical account of the more important disputes and negotiations, a survey of the conflict concerning the structure and the tactics of the organisations, and a statistical section throwing light on the whole development and activities of the trade unions.

Ausschuss zur Untersuchung der Erzeugungs- und Absatzbedingungen der deutschen Wirtschaft (Enquete-Ausschuss). *Die Arbeitsleistung im Braunkohlenbergbau in den Jahren 1913-1926.* Sonderveröffentlichung aus dem Endbericht des (IV.) Unterausschusses für Arbeitsleistung. Berlin, E. S. Mittler und Sohn. 1928. 21 pp.

—— *Verhandlungen und Berichte des Unterausschusses für allgemeine Wirtschaftsstruktur.* (I. Unterausschuss.) 3. Arbeitsgruppe. *Wandlungen in den wirtschaftlichen Organisationsformen.* Zweiter Teil. *Entwicklungslinien der industriellen und gewerblichen Kartellierung.* Erster Abschnitt. *Arbeitsplan, Maschinenbau.* Berlin, 1928. XI + 338 pp.

Baumgarten, Dr. Franziska. *Die Berufseignungsprüfungen. Theorie und Praxis.* Munich and Berlin, Oldenbourg, 1928. 742 pp. illustr.

Bottai, Giuseppe. *Sviluppi dell' idea corporativa nella legislazione internationale.* Edizioni di *Il Giornale di Politica e di Letteratura.* Leghorn, 1928. 64 pp.

Bowley, Arthur L. *Eléments de statistique.* Traduits sur la cinquième édition anglaise. Bibliothèque internationale d'Economie politique, publiée sous la direction de Alfred Bonnet. Paris, Marcel Giard, 1929. XI + 614 pp.

Brauer, Theodor. *Ketteler. Der deutsche Bischof und Sozialreformer.* Hamburg, Berlin, Leipzig, Hanseatische Verlagsanstalt. 139 pp. 4.80 marks.

Thanks to his thorough knowledge of the character and works of Bishop Ketteler, the eminent prelate of the Catholic Church in Germany, the author of this biography has been able to give a vivid and comprehensive account of his life and of his work. The first part of the book, which is also the most important, acquaints us with the activities of the man who, first a priest in a country parish, then provost in Berlin, and finally Bishop of Mainz, became the great social reformer who occupies so important a place in the history of German social policy.

In the second part of the work, the author develops the fundamental ideas of social reform conceived by Ketteler. He deals, in particular, with Christianity and social questions, labour problems and labour protection, by which the author understands the cultivation of the corporate spirit and the development of co-operative activities among the workers.

British Social Hygiene Council. *Thirteenth Annual Report, 1 June 1927-31 May 1928.* London. 132 pp.

Calhoun, Arthur W. *The Worker looks at Government.* New York, International Publishers, 1927. 176 pp.

This book embodies a conception of Government which is the outcome of several years' study by classes at Brookwood Labour College. It deals with various aspects of government in the United States which are of most significance to workers. Its principal object is to prepare workers for the rôle they will be called upon to play in the event of the development of a Labour Party in that country. The underlying idea throughout is that if and when a Labour Party does evolve in the United States, it shall not be "a mere liberal social-reform movement but rather a class-conscious organ of a militant working class."

Carslaw, R. McG., and Kirkpatrick, W. H. *An Economic and Financial Analysis of Fifteen East Anglian Farms, 1926-1927.* University of Cambridge, Department of Agriculture, Farm Economics Branch, Report No. 10. Cambridge, 1928. 17 pp., tables. 1s.

Centralförbundet för Socialt Arbete. *1903-1928. Minnesskrift.* Stockholm, Oscar Eklunds Boktryckeri, 1928. 103 pp.

A volume published on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Swedish Central Association for Social Work. The detailed descriptions given of the research work, the publishing and the lecturing activities of the Association throw an interesting light on the development of social problems in Sweden during the last quarter of a century.

Chauveau, Dr. C. *Loi sur les assurances sociales : Commentaire juridique, financier et administratif.* Lettre-préface de M. Raymond Poincaré. Paris, Librairie Générale de droit et de jurisprudence, 1928. 1253 pp.

Confederazione Nazionale Fascista degli Agricoltori. Commissione di Studi Giuridici. I. *Schema di norme su le migliorie nelle locazioni di fondi rustici.* Rome. 42 pp.

The Legal Studies Committee of the National Fascist Federation of Agriculturists has undertaken a study of the problem of the recognition of rights acquired by the farmer in respect to improvements made by him on a rented farm. The Committee has made proposals which tend to modify certain of the fundamental legal provisions now in force and which lay down the farmers' right to compensation. The Committee has further suggested measures against abuses. The Provincial Economic Council for each province is to draw up a list — periodically submitted for revision — of recognised improvements. The tenant must notify the owner of such improvements as he intends to make. On the other hand, the owner, if he objects to any improvement proposed, can appeal to the Provincial Economic Council, with whom lies the final decision. The owner also may carry out improvements. If no objection has been raised sixty days after notification, the tenant may put in hand the work of improvement which entitles him to compensation ; the amount, fixed at the end of his tenancy, will be approximately equivalent to three-quarters of his outlay.

Co-operative Press Agency. *The People's Year Book. Being the Annual of the English and Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Societies, 1929.* Manchester, Co-operative Wholesale Society. 344 pp.

The year book gives, as in previous issues, an extensive survey of consumers' co-operative activities in Great Britain and in other countries, together with articles on questions affecting European political and economic interests. Special articles are devoted to co-operative organisations in the Dominions and their relations with the consumers' movement at home.

Co-operative Union. *The Co-operative Directory, 1928.* Manchester, 1928. 424 pp.

Czachyra, Adam. *O ubezpieczeniu pracownikow umyslowych.* Warsaw, Zwiazek Rewizyjny Polskich Spoldzielni Rolniczych, 1928. 72 pp.

Deutsche Schiffahrts-Kalender (Deutscher Nautischer Kalender) 1929. Achtunddreissigster Jahrgang. Bearbeitet von Seefahrtschuldirektor Preuss und Kapitan Theo E. Sönnichsen. Hamburg, Verlag der "Hansa" Deutsche Nautische Zeitschrift. 197 pp.

Fabregat, Luis E. *Legislacion social y del trabajo vigente en Cuba (anotada y concordata), 1927.* Havana, J. Martin. 176 pp.

Gerber, Walter. *Die öffentliche Unternehmung in privatrechtlicher Form. Ein Beitrag zur sozialökonomischen Lehre von den Formen öffentlicher Unternehmungen unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der Schweiz.* Genehmigt auf Antrag von Dr. M. Saitzew. Dissertation der rechts- und staatswissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Zürich zur Erlangung der Würde eines Doktors der Volkswirtschaft. Zurich, Girsberger and Co., 1928. xiii + 242 pp.

Gesamtverband der Krankenkassen Deutschland. *Die Krankenversicherung im Jahre* 1927. Berlin. 128 pp.

Gombo, Etienne. *Le Conseil d'Administration du Bureau international du Travail et l'augmentation du nombre de ses membres. Revision de l'article 393 du Traité de Versailles, soit de l'article 311 du Traité de Trianon.* Extrait de la *Revue de Hongrie,* du 15 novembre 1928. Budapest, imprimerie de la Société anonyme Athenaeum, 1928. 29 pp.

Graziadei, Antonio. *Kapital und Löhne.* Berlin, R. L. Prager ; Milan, L. Trevisini, 1929. 181 pp.

German edition of a work to which attention was drawn in the *International Labour Review,* Vol. XVII, No. 6, June 1928, p. 923.

Gross, Walter. *Vorschläge zu einem neuen deutschen Miet-, Wohn- und Bodenrecht (Wohnwirtschafts-Gesetz). Januar 1929.* Dresden. 88 pp.

Grunitz, Heinz. *Der Anteil der Arbeitskosten am Preise der Steinkohle im rheinwestfäl. Bergbau in den letzten 15 Jahren.* Inaugural-Dissertation zur Erlangung der Doktorwürde der Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Köln. Duisburg-Ruhrport, Daubenspeck und Fastenrath, 1928. ix + 139 pp.

Handbuch der Kredit-Genossenschaften. Jahrgang 1928-1929. Bearbeitet von Dr. K. Tuschinski. Berlin, Leipzig, Verlag für Börsen- und Finanzliteratur Aktiengesellschaft. lxxxiii + 772 pp. 32 marks.

Of the 52,440 co-operative societies existing at 1 January 1929 in Germany, 22,395 (42.7 per cent.) are shown to be co-operative credit societies with a membership of about 3,000,000. Their growing importance justifies the investigations which enabled the data given in this work to be collected. These data relate, for each society, to : latest balance-sheet, profit and loss account, management, date of foundation, object, banking relations, membership, etc.

Hantos, Dr. Elemér. *Europäischer Zollverein und Mitteleuropäische Wirtschaftsgemeinschaft.* Nr. 1 der Schriftenreihe des Europäischen Zoll-Vereins E. V. Berlin, Organisation Verlagsgesellschaft. 67 pp.

The author's thesis is that a *rapprochement* between Central European countries is an essential preliminary to a Pan-European Union.

Hauptverband deutscher Krankenkassen. *Jahrbuch der Krankenversicherung 1927.* Berlin, 1928. 367 pp.

Hendrych, Viktor. *Unfallverhütungsarbeit.* Veröffentlichungen des Deutschen Hauptverbandes der Industrie. Teplitz-Schönau, 1929. 33 pp.

Hill, Karl. *Die Werksbeurlaubung.* Inaugural-Dissertation zur Erlangung der Doktorwürde einer Hohen Rechtswissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Köln. Cologne-Mülheim, Karl Glitscher, 1928. XI + 71 pp.

This work bears on a point of labour law hitherto little studied : the grant of holidays to the wage earner in the case of an undertaking suspending work. In addition to stoppages due to various causes, fire or frost, for example, those arising from special circumstances, such as the " passive resistance " which followed the occupation of the Ruhr, have raised, in Germany, a whole series of social and legal problems. It is the latter more especially which the author examines in the five sections of his exposition.

Hostench, Francisco. *El derecho del despide en el contrato de trabajo. El derecho, la ley y la corporacion.* Barcelona, Libreria Bosch, 1929. 208 pp. 4 pesetas.

The author examines the evolution of modern legal conceptions concerning the relations between employers and workers and, more especially, the right of dismissal in the labour contract.

Jahrbuch des Krankenversicherungsrechts. In Verbindung mit Dr. Mentzel, Dr. Moll, herausgegeben von Dr. Hs. Th. Soergel. 14. Jahrgang. Enthaltend Rechtsprechung und Zeitschriftenaufsätze des Jahres 1927. Stuttgart, W. Kohlhammer, 1928. X + 92 pp.

Jones, A. Creech. *Trade Unionism of To-day.* Workers' Educational Association Outlines. General Editor : R. S. Lambert, M.A. London, Longmans, Green and Co. VI + 90 pp.

One of a series of volumes issued by the Workers' Educational Association, for working-class students It contains a description of the main phases of trade union activity in the sphere of collective bargaining, organisation and education. The chapters on "Federation and Concentration", and on "Union Joint Working Agreements", in particular, deserve the attention of all interested in latter-day forms of trade union activity.

Karsten, A. *Sozialer Ratgeber. Mitgliedschaft, Beiträge, Ansprüche und Verfahren auf dem gesamten Gebiet der Sozialen Versicherung, Versorgung und Fürsorge.* Berlin, Zentralverband der Arbeits-Invaliden und Witwen Deutschlands. 253 pp.

Kreil, Dr. *Sozialversicherung und Wirtschaft.* Mit einem Vorwort von Präsident Schaeffer vom Reichsversicherungsamt und 7 bildlichen Darstellungen. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1928. 133 pp.

Kussner, Karl. *Englische Volksbildungsarbeit.* Stuttgart, Verlag Silberung, 1927. 155 pp.

The author examines the tasks of workers' education in Great Britain and the means employed to fulfil them. He considers in turn the history of the question, the requirements of workers' education and the results attained. In this last part of his study the author describes the way in which the State, local authorities, universities and trade unions have contributed, according to their means, to the work undertaken. In conclusion, he draws a parallel between the development of workers' education in Great Britain and in Germany, and points out the British experiments which might usefully be copied in Germany. The volume includes a bibliography.

Laffon-Montels, Marcel. *La radiodiffusion. Problème social. Problème de droit public.* Préface de Achille Mestre. Paris, Publications radio-électriques et scientifiques, journal "Le Haut-Parleur" , 1928. 124 pp. 8 fr.

The author examines in turn the birth of broadcasting, its characteristic features, and its social rôle as a means of information and education. He considers the legal provisions relating to broadcasting in the United States, Great Britain, Germany and the U.S.S.R., and describes the preliminaries to the passing of similar legis-

lation in France. Finally, he analyses the rights of authors and broadcasting agencies, and the restrictions which should be placed on the commercial use of broadcasting. The volume includes a biliography.

Laptchevic. *Polojai radnitchke Kease i sindikalni pokret ou Srbiji.* Belgrade. 1928. 411 pp.

Study on the position of the working classes and the trade union movement in Serbia.

Les Pays-Bas et leurs Colonies. "L'Illustration économique et financière". Numéro spécial. Supplément au n° du 25 août 1928. Paris. 224 pp.

Letouzé, Pierre. *La crise des exportations anglaises 1920-1927.* Université de Bordeaux. Facultés de Droit et des Lettres. Publications de l'Institut d'Étude et de Documentation économiques et sociales. Paris, Recueil Sirey, 1929. 151 pp.

The first two parts of this book, which deal with the effects and the economic causes of the crisis in the British export industries, contain a considerable amount of information on the situation in Great Britain which is not easily accessible to those who do not read English. It is regrettable, however, that the author has not consulted more English sources of information.

Magyarorszagi vas- és Fammunkasok Központi Szövetsége Vezetöségének. *Jelentése és Zarszamadasa a XII. rendes és 25. Evi jubileumi Közgyölésre 1903-1928.* Budapest. 136 pp.

Report of the Central Committee of the Hungarian Metal Workers' Association prepared on the occasion of the twelfth ordinary meeting and twenty-fifth anniversary of the foundation of the Association. The membership of the organisation, originally 7,127, after some fluctuations, reached its highest figure in 1917-1918 with over 80,000 members. It fell to 49,000 in 1919 and to 17,715 in 1927.

Mahaim, Ernest. *Histoire de la Convention de Washington sur la durée du travail.* Extrait de la *Revue économique internationale*, décembre 1928. Brussels, Goemaere. 1928. 33 pp.

The author's intention was not to discuss the merits and the disadvantages of the eight-hour day or the expediency of this or that legislative measure. His purpose was to write a history of the Washington Convention of 1919. He examines in turn the work of the Paris the and Washington Conferences, analyses the Articles of the Convention, recalls the first ratifications and the first difficulties, and considers the attitude of the British Labour Government towards the question, the scope of the work of the London Conference of Labour Ministers (1926), and that of the Committee appointed by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to examine the means of hastening the progress of ratification of the Convention (November 1926 and January 1927). Finally, he considers the situation arising from the British demand for revision (February 1928).

The author's conclusion is optimistic. "The eight-hour day", he says, "is firmly established in the national legislations and in the customs of a large section of industry. One may say that the differences which exist in fact between the big industrial countries are practically negligible and that the adjustment sought through a revision of the international text will bear only on points of detail."

—— *Marxism et Libéralisme.* Reprinted from the review *Le Flambeau*. Brussels, Henri van Sulper, 1929. 27 pp.

After analysing the ideas expounded by Mr. de Man in *Au delà du Marxisme* and others of his works, Mr. Mahaim considers what conclusions Liberalism should draw from this study. "When one goes to the bottom of things", he says, "one cannot help seeing in this reaction against the sombre Marxist doctrine a sudden uprising of liberty. What is not in conformity with Marxism is the continuous and growing material, intellectual and moral progress of the working classes. This progress I call a conquest of liberty."

Mess, Henry A. *Industrial Tyneside.* A Social Survey made for the Bureau of Social Research for Tyneside. London, Ernest Benn, 1928. 184 pp.

An exceptionally interesting and well documented survey, made by the Director of the Bureau of Social Research for Tyneside assisted by a local committee, of the social and industrial conditions of Tyneside — the district including particularly

Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Gateshead, South Shields, Tynemouth and Wallsend. The survey is not, to use the author's expression, a "statistical photograph" of the district at a particular point in time, but a study of the area over a period of about a century with special attention to the last few years. Much of the information it contains has already been published in a number of official and unofficial reports, but this information is here analysed, arranged and commented upon in a form which gives it a totally new significance.

The chief industries of Tyneside being shipbuilding and coal mining — two of the most unstable and for the last eight years two of the most deeply depressed industries in Great Britain — the picture presented is necessarily a gloomy one. Irregular employment, high birth rate, bad housing, inadequate educational facilities, high morbidity rate, lack of social life — such are the salient features that emerge from this careful marshalling of facts and figures. The plight of the smaller towns, those having between 10,000 and 40,000 inhabitants, is particularly unhappy.

The outstanding problem of Tyneside, as the Survey Committee see it, is to establish a new equilibrium between population and industry. They consider that all the indications are against the possibility of the area supporting its present population on earnings which will give a tolerable standard of life. A number of recommendations are advanced for grappling with this and the other difficulties revealed by the survey. Dependent as they are upon their context, there is little object in enumerating these recommendations in a brief review such as this. But whether or not their suggestions are acted upon, the Survey Committee and their Director, Mr. Henry A. Mess, are to be congratulated on having performed a valuable service both to their neighbourhood and to the world at large, not only by putting out a report which is both informative and eminently readable, but also by demonstrating how much can be done by public-spirited citizens in advancing the common weal.

Molitor, Dr. Erich. *Kommentar zur vorläufigen Landarbeitsordnung vom 24. Januar 1919 nebst einem Abdruck der Bestimmungen über die Anwerbung und Beschäftigung ausländischer Arbeiter.* Berlin, Julius Springer, 1928. 84 pp.

National Safety Council. Seventeenth Annual Safety Congress 1928. *Transactions.* New York. Vol. I, 1149 pp. Vol. II, 1021 pp.

Neubauer, Dr. Zdenek. *Socialni Pojistèni Po Strance Procesni. Rizeni a Opravné Prostredky v Nemocenském Invalidnim a Starobnim Pojisteni Ceskoslovenském.* Sbirka Spisu Pravnickych a Narosohospodarskych. S. Podporou Ministerstva Skolstvi a Narodni Osvety. Vydavaji Karel Englis a Frantisek Weyr. Brno, Barvic and Novotny, 1927. viii + 291 pp.

Oppenheim, L. *International Law. A Treatise.* Fourth Edition, edited by Arnold D. McNair, C.B.E., LL.D. London, New York, Longmans Green and Co., 1928.

Professor Oppenheim, of the University of Cambridge, published before the war of 1914-1918 a treatise on international law which may be considered a standard work, and which possesses the somewhat rare merit of presenting for Continental jurists as great an interest as it does for jurists familiar with Anglo-Saxon methods. Unfortunately, the author of this important work died in 1919 without having had the time necessary to devote his attention to the important developments of international law since the Peace Treaty. The third edition of his work, published in 1920 by Mr. Roxburgh, was necessarily very incomplete in this respect.

The regrettable gaps have now been filled by Dr. McNair, Lecturer in the University of Cambridge, in a fourth edition, in which the numerous additions made are such as to constitute an original work in themselves. The space here available forbids an analysis of all the questions dealt with. Mention, however, must be made of the chapters relating to the League of Nations, the International Labour Organisation, and the Permanent Court of International Justice, in which Dr. McNair presents, in a concise and lucid form, the essential features of these institutions.

Constructed according to a strictly objective method, this work is an invaluable instrument for jurists and students of international law.

Oualid, William, and Picquenard, Charles. *Salaires et tarifs. Conventions collectives et grèves. La politique du Ministère de l'Armement et du Ministère du Travail.* La Guerre et Le Travail. Histoire économique et sociale de la guerre mondiale. Dotation Carnegie pour la Paix Internationale. Section d'Economie et d'Histoire. Paris, Les Presses Universitaires de France ; New Haven, Yale University Press. XII + 558 pp.

This work deals with labour problems and their solution in France during the war. The dominating factor in the situation as regards industrial production at that time was the substitution of a policy of State intervention for the relatively liberal policy which formerly obtained. Under the strong impetus given to it by Mr. Albert Thomas, the French Ministry of Munitions exercised a sort of guardianship over the labour supply and so played a leading part in the industrial life of Labour the country. It is this policy and that, equally important, of the Ministry of which are the principal subjects treated in Messrs. Oualid and Picquenard's study.

In an introductory chapter, the authors recall the principal point in the problems of labour policy which the war brought before the authorities. (In this connection see the masterly study by Mr. Arthur Fontaine, *L'industrie française pendant la guerre*, analysed in the *International Labour Review*, March 1925, Vol. XI, No. 3, p. 437.)

The first part of the work now under consideration traces the origin of the Ministry of Munitions and describes the organisation of its services dealing with labour questions ; it also sets forth the main principles by which the Ministry was guided in its efforts to increase production : adequate, guaranteed and living wage ; equal pay for equal work for civilians, mobilised workers, women and foreigners ; stability of the labour supply ; maintenance of social peace in the factories.

The second part is devoted to the wage policy of the Ministry of Munitions. The authors emphasise the characteristic phases : drawing up of the rules relating to mobilised industrial workers ; application of the Decree of 10 August 1899 concerning working conditions under State contracts ; fixing of wage rates ; institution of cost of living bonuses and family allowances. The culminating point in this policy was reached, on 16 January 1917, with the decision of the Ministry of Munitions establishing a minimum wage which was gradually extended to over two million workers.

The third part of the book describes the fruitful and lasting work accomplished by the Ministry of Labour in the field of collective agreements. It shows how these agreements, which were extremely limited before the war as regards both territorial area and occupations covered, found support in the Act of 10 July 1915 on the minimum wage of home workers and the Act of 11 June 1927 on the "*semaine anglaise*" : how, later, they became general and were legally regulated by the Act of 25 March 1919, supplemented by the Act of 23 April 1919 on the eight-hour day.

The fourth part deals, more particularly from the statistical standpoint, with strikes, their causes, results, and mode of settlement.

The fifth part is devoted to relations between employers and workers and measures taken by Mr. Albert Thomas to maintain peace in the factories engaged in war work : prevention of disputes and institution of workers' delegates ; conciliation ; and the Decree of 17 January 1917 prohibiting strikes and lockouts and organising compulsory arbitration in establishments working for national defence. A chapter is devoted to conciliation and arbitration in the mercantile marine and in the mining industry.

The book ends with a survey of labour and social policy after the war. The authors show that among the innovations and developments due to the war some were transitory while others constituted definite additions to French labour law.

By the abundance, accuracy and clearness of the material utilised, this work forms a highly valuable contribution to the history of labour and social policy in France during the war.

Petch, Arthur W. *Co-operative Employees and Superannuation Funds.* Manchester, National Union of Distributive and Allied Workers. 63 pp.

An explanatory memorandum on the establishing of contributory superannuation funds in co-operative societies, with an appendix showing the main details of ninety superannuation schemes in operation in co-operative societies in Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Podbreznik, Dr. Fran D. *Problem Racionalizacije u Nasoj Privredi.* Zagreb, 1928. 40 pp.

Short study on rationalisation in industry in the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

Pointing, H. B., and Burns, Emile. *Agriculture.* Labour and Capital Series No. XI. London, Labour Research Department, 1927. 64 pp. 1s.

Reisch, Karl. *Der Bauverein Freiburg im Breisgau. Eingetragene Genossenschaft mit beschränkter Haftpflicht in Freiburg im Breisgau (Baden) und sein Wirken in den Jahren 1899-1926.* Düsseldorf, Fritz Lindner, 1927. 37 pp.

Répertoire de droit international. Condition des étrangers. Conflit des lois. Respect des droits acquis. Lois pénales. Nationalité. Jugements. Procédure, etc. Fondé par A. Darras. Publié par A. de Lapradelle et J. P. Niboyet. Avec la collaboration de nombreux jurisconsultes. Secrétaire Général, P. Goulé. Tome I. *Abandon — Armateur.* VI + 713 pp. Tome II. *Armée — Bureau International du Travail.* 705 pp. Paris, Recueil Sirey, 1929.

The editors of the *Revue de droit international privé* considered that the scientific work to which that periodical is devoted should be supplemented by a "repertory of international law". Messrs. de Lapradelle and Niboyet, in collaboration with numerous jurists, have undertaken to supply the work of reference required. It will comprise about ten volumes which will appear at short intervals. The first two have been issued. The repertory deals not only with international private law but with all matters connected with international law which do not, strictly speaking, fall under the heading of "law of nations" (*droit des gens*). It includes valuable information on questions connected with international labour protection. Methodically planned, Messrs. de Lapradelle and Niboyet's repertory is a legal work of high value both from the theoretical and practical standpoints. It should prove extremely useful to all interested in problems of international law.

Rodriguez, Dr. Germinal. *Servicio Médico y Servicio Social de las Cajas de Seguros Sociales (con especial applicacion a la Caja Nacional de Jubilaciones y Pensiones Ferroviarias).* Facultad de Ciencias Médicas de Buenos Aires. Instituto de Higiene. Buenos Aires, 1928. 200 pp.

Rychlinski, Stanislaw. *Place i Zarobki Robotnikow Przemyslowych w Dziesieciolecin 1918-1928. Les salaires des ouvriers industriels pendant la période 1918-1928.* Institut d'Économie sociale. Questions ouvrières No. 4. Warsaw, 1929. 29 pp.

Sassanbach, Johann. *Lo que es y lo que pretende la Federacion Sindical Internacional.* Amsterdam. 36 pp.

Secretan, Jacques. *Les immunités diplomatiques des représentants des Etats Membres et des agents de la Société des Nations.* Geneva, Payot et Cie, 1928. 120 pp.

The author has based this study on material drawn from the most reliable sources. He expounds with great clearness the mechanism of diplomatic immunities and supplies the reader with abundant references.

After recalling briefly the nature of the different institutions which form the framework of the League of Nations, the author defines the status of an "official of the League of Nations", a term used in Article 7 of the Covenant whose vague nature has given rise to much controversy. By basing himself on the actual texts, Mr. Secretan arrives at a classification which fully meets practical requirements. The author then justifies the existence of diplomatic immunities and, in the last chapter, examines their scope, reviewing in turn inviolability, extra-territoriality and jurisdictional and fiscal immunity. These four questions are considered first in the light of the usages and customs of international law, and, secondly, in their practical aspect, that is to say, in accordance with the solution reached by agreement between the authorities of the Swiss Confederation and the League of Nations. Mr. Secretan's work is a useful contribution to legal science and more especially to the increasingly important branch of international public law. A bibliography is included.

Sintesi. *Le assicurazioni sociali obbligatorie. Indicatore generale sistematico in quadri sinottici degli estremi delle disposizioni legislative vigenti.* Collezione di pubblicazioni in quadri sinottici sulle assicurazioni sociali obbligatorio. N. 1. Venice, 1928.

Soviet Union Year Book. Compiled and Edited by A. A. Santalov and Louis Segal, Ph.D., M.A. London, George Allen and Unwin. xxxi + 587 pp., maps.

The first edition of this year book, which is designed to provide business and public men with information on the economic and political life of the U.S.S.R., appeared in 1925 under the title *The Commercial Year Book of the Soviet Union* (cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XII, No. 2, Aug. 1925, p. 306). It was followed in 1926 by a second edition brought up to date. The third edition, now under review, contains a great deal of new material, particularly in the chapters on foreign trade and finance, which have been entirely rewritten. Among other subjects dealt with are the co-operative movement, labour, education, etc. All the information has been brought up to date and the latest maps of the U.S.S.R. and a bibliography are included.

Spuhler, Dr. W. *The International Structure of the Food and Drink Trades and the Attitude of their Workers.* Zurich, Secretariat of the International Union of Food and Drink Workers, 1929. 30 pp.

The author examines what tasks are incumbent on the workers owing to the present structure and constitution of the food and drink trades. They consist, he concludes, in an extension of international co-operation, and the conversion of the International Union of Federations of Workers in the Food and Drink Trades into a powerful instrument for the rise of the working classes. His enquiry into industrial conditions in the victual trades, he says, has shown that "if the trade unions are to accomplish their task they must have a knowledge of economics. Here again it is the trade international which is best adapted to collect and distribute economic matters and experiences, to point to difficulties and to lead the way."

Svaz sklarskych a brusicskych delniku v Ceskoslovenské republice. Sidlo Teplice. 1924-1927. Teplice-Sanov, J. Snajdra v Kladne, 1928. 240 pp.

Report on the activities of the Czechoslovak Federation of Glass Workers for the period 1924-1927.

Trades Union Congress. *Report of Proceedings at the 60th Annual Trades Union Congress held at Swansea 3-8 September 1928.* Edited by Walter M. Citrine. London. 566 pp.

Trade Union Documents. Compiled and edited with an introduction by W. Milne-Bailey. London, George Bell and Sons, 1929. xxvi + 552 pp.

This collection of documents is one of the most important contributions to trade union literature published in the post-war period. Dealing with the objects of the latter-day trade union movement it affords a valuable insight into the part which trade unionism plays in the economic life of Great Britain. In the section dealing with the functions and methods of trade unions, the information given touches nearly every phase of trade union activity. For the English reader, the section dealing with the operation of the injunction in the United States will also be particularly illuminating.

Truchy, Henri. *Cours d'économie politique.* Troisième édition, revisée et mise à jour. Tome premier. Paris, Recueil Sirey, 1929. xvi + 538 pp.

The first volume of this important work, which has been "crowned" by the French Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, is in seven parts dealing respectively with: (1) general notions of political economy, methods and theories; (2) general conditions of economic activity (physical, human, and legal spheres, individualism and State intervention, the technical bases of agricultural and industrial economy); (3) constituent elements and various forms of economic enterprise (this subject is very fully treated); (4) the mechanism of exchange (organisation of markets, transport, money); (5) banking (credit, issue); (6) price-fixing under a system of open competition and under a monopoly system, influence of money on prices; (7) adaptation of production to consumption and general periodical crises (unfortunately too summarily treated).

Vereinigung der Deutschen Arbeitgeberverbände. *Die Mitglieder-Versammlung. 1928.* Berlin, 1929. 64 pp.

Wirtschafts-Demokratie. Ihr Wesen, Weg und Ziel. Herausgegeben im Auftrage des Allgemeinen Deutschen Gewerkschaftsbundes von Fritz NAPHTALI. Berlin, 1928. 192 pp.

Zentralverband deutscher Konsumvereine. *Jahrbuch.* Herausgegeben von Heinrich KAUFFMANN. *Sechsundzwanzigster Jahrgang* 1928. Zweiter Band. IV + 767 pp. Dritter Band. VIII + 631 pp. Hamburg, 1928.

The first volume of this year book of the Central Union of German Distributive Co-operative Societies was analysed in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVIII, No. 3, September 1928, p. 481. The second volume contains the report of the German Wholesale Society of Distributive Co-operative Societies (turnover 373,000,000 marks against 294,000,000 in 1926) and that of the two insurance societies *Volksfürsorge* and *Eigenhilfe*, together with the annual reports on the activities of the ten district unions affiliated to the Central Union. The third volume contains reports of the twenty-fifth Congress of the Central Union, the thirty-fourth General Meeting of the Wholesale Society, the sixteenth General Meeting of the Publishing Society of the German Distributive Co-operative Societies, the fifteenth General Meeting of the *Volksfürsorge* and the third General Meeting of the *Eigenhilfe*, and, finally, the reports of the congresses of the district unions.

Zjednoczenie Zwiazkow Spodzielni Rolniczych Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej. *Rocznik Statystyczny Spodzielni Rolniczych za 1927 Rok. Annuaire statistique des sociétés coopératives agricoles, 1927.* Warsaw, 1928.

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The International Labour Office is not responsible for opinions expressed in signed articles.

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

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The International Regulation of Hours of Work of Salaried Employees

by

Dr. R. FUHS

Chief of Section, International Labour Office

The first discussion of the question of hours of work for salaried employees is an item on the agenda of the Twelfth Session of the International Labour Conference, which begins on 30 May 1929. The aim of this first discussion is to choose the questions on which the Governments will have to express their opinions, with a view to surveying and fixing the contents and limits of the international system of regulations that is contemplated. As a basis for this discussion the International Labour Office has submitted a report[1] *to the Conference (the so-called "grey report"), which, after explaining the origin of the movement towards international regulation of this question, gives a general survey of the existing law and practice, followed by a detailed comparative study of the scope of the national legislations, the limitation and distribution of hours of work prescribed by them, and the administrative measures for their enforcement. The report concludes with a draft questionnaire containing a series of questions calling for an answer which are suggested by a study of the existing law and practice in the different countries and of existing or proposed international regulations.*

The aim of this article is to give readers of the International Labour Review *a comprehensive survey based on the grey report, setting out the prospects and possibilities of international regulation of the question.*

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[1] INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Hours of Work of Salaried Employees : Report and Draft Questionnaire.* International Labour Conference, Twelfth Session, Item IV on the Agenda. Geneva, 1929. 216 pp.

For a survey on similar lines relating to hours in industry, cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *The Regulation of Hours of Work in European Industry.* Reprinted from the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVIII, Nos. 1-5, July-Nov. 1928. Geneva, 1928. 112 pp.

Origin of the Movement for International Regulation of the Question

THE movement towards international regulation of the hours of work of salaried employees arose on the one hand from the fact that while in most countries hours of work are already regulated by law for nearly all employees, yet at the same time the great majority of employees are up to the present outside the scope of all international regulation, although the labour clauses of the Peace Treaty intended the limitation of working hours to cover all workers, whether manual or non-manual. It is true that the Washington Convention of 1919, which is the only Hours Convention so far adopted, covers employees, but only those employed in industry, and even a great number of these are excepted from its provisions. According to Article 2, the Convention does not apply to persons holding positions of supervision or management, nor to persons employed in a confidential capacity. It cannot be denied that this provision, even with a very narrow interpretation (for which there is no legal guarantee), particularly affects the employees in an industrial undertaking. The consequence is that—apart from the few industrial employees covered by the Washington Convention—the great mass of employees, particularly those in commercial undertakings and offices (who form the bulk of employees), are not yet in enjoyment of international protection with reference to hours of work.

On the other hand, as has just been mentioned, practically all employees already benefit by national legislation on hours of work. In most countries hours of work are limited by an Act applying to both workers and employees, either in all undertakings or for special groups of undertakings, especially industrial and commercial undertakings. In the early period of legislation in this sphere, special regulations for employees applied almost exclusively to shop assistants ; this was so in particular in the different parts of the British Empire. At present only three countries have special legislation for all employees : Chile, Germany, and Luxemburg. In Bolivia, Finland, and Salvador there are special regulations on the hours of work of employees, but they apply only to employees in commercial establishments. For these employees, and for employees in general other than those in industrial establishments, there are now very few States

that have no legal regulation of hours of work (in Europe : Albania, Estonia, Hungary, Norway, and Sweden ; in America : Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Paraguay ; in Asia : China, India, Japan, Persia, and Siam ; in Africa : Ethiopia and Liberia) ; and in some of these countries commercial activity is at a very elementary stage of organisation.

All the national systems of regulation, however widely they may differ in form (laws with direct or indirect effects, orders, decrees, etc.), make it clear that the need for regulations on the hours of work of employees backed by the support of the law is almost everywhere recognised. This is confirmed by the fact that failing such legislation, or in addition to it, hours of work are often limited by collective agreements, especially in countries in which the organisations of workers and employers are highly developed and the legislature recognises collective agreements as that failing such legislation, or in addition to it, hours of work ing conditions. Finally, taking into account the fact that many millions of employees in the most varied occupations are interested in these regulations, it is easily comprehensible that they feel it a grievance that there is no international protection of their hours of work, such as has been granted primarily to industrial workers, ensuring the minimum of the advantages gained in the various countries. The discontent on this head, expressed in numerous declarations made by organisations of employees, culminated in the resolution adopted by an international conference of employees held at Montreux in 1926, and supported by the International Association for Social Progress, in favour of international regulation of the hours of work of salaried employees. Thereupon the International Labour Conference, at its Tenth Session in June 1927, adopted a resolution proposed by Mr. Schürch, Swiss Workers' Delegate, requesting the Governing Body to consider the possibility of placing on the agenda of an early Session of the Conference the question of "the international regulation of the hours of work of all workers other than industrial workers (commercial employees)". The Governing Body placed this question on the Agenda of the Twelfth Session of the Conference.

The first discussion of this subject by the Conference and the resulting questionnaire, the answers to which will express the views of the different States, must as far as possible cover all

the ground that seems to need clearing in preparation for the contemplated regulations. Such an exhaustive study of the problems to be solved is largely dependent on a thorough examination of the existing law and practice in different countries. For this reason the report drawn up in preparation for the first discussion lays special stress on this examination, which at the same time gives some idea of the possible contents of the contemplated regulations.

Existing Law and Practice

A short account is given below of the main features of the existing law and practice, at least so far as seems essential for drawing up international regulations [1].

It must first, however, be made clear what part of the national systems of regulations on hours of work has to be considered in connection with the task before the Conference. The resolution mentioned above, which was adopted at the Tenth Session, aims at international regulation for all employed persons other than industrial workers. This must clearly be taken to mean that all employees who are already covered by the Washington Hours Convention are to be excluded from the new regulations. The national regulations on this subject do not therefore come within the scope of this enquiry. In addition, however, the Governing Body, when placing the question on the agenda, decided that employees in agriculture and maritime work were not to be considered. The national regulations affecting such workers may, therefore, also be left aside, and the same is true for home work and domestic service, which must be excluded on account of their special character. In general, however, all other occupations in which employees are engaged can be included in the new regulations, in accordance with the principles laid down by the Conference and the Governing Body. These are, in particular, commercial undertakings, especially shops, establishments in which the staff is mainly engaged in office work, establishments which are both industrial and commercial, establishments for the preventive and curative treatment of the sick, and certain other undertakings. For all these groups the

[1] For this part of the article in particular the reader is referred to the original report for fuller details.

national laws and regulations must be examined with special reference to their scope, the limitation and distribution of hours of work prescribed, the exceptions permitted, and the administrative measures for their enforcement.

The Scope of National Regulations

The definition of the scope can vary in many ways. In the first place a distinction must be made between positive and negative definition. The first consists in the express mention of the groups of establishments or persons that are covered by the regulations, and the second in the express mention of the groups to which they do not apply. In most cases the two methods are combined. A further distinction is that in some (though, as we have seen, very few) cases the regulations apply to all employees irrespective of the kind of work they do, while in other (and more frequent) cases they apply to the employees in ployees irrespective of the kind of work they do, while in other cases (this is the largest group) they refer to the whole staff, both workers and employees, in one or more groups of undertakings, and therefore apply primarily to the establishment. Finally, it must be noted that in all these cases (positive or negative definition, definition by persons or by establishments) the scope is sometimes defined by the use of general descriptions such as "employees", "commercial employees", "shop assistants", "commercial establishments", "shops", with or without a more detailed definition of these terms, or sometimes by a precise enumeration of the separate groups of persons or undertakings covered or excluded ; in most cases, however, the two methods are used together. This last difference is of importance for two reasons. On the one hand, the establishments or persons covered by the general description are not necessarily the same in different countries ; and, on the other, the groups of establishments or persons enumerated in one country may be covered by the general description used in another. Thus, for instance, the same term "shop" as used in different countries may not always have the same connotation, while, failing any provision to the contrary, shops may be covered by regulations applying to "commercial establishments" in general, even if, as in certain other countries, there are no special regulations for shops. It follows from the variety of methods of definition that it is not

possible to say definitely whether the same groups of establishments or persons are covered by the regulations on hours of work in different countries until the exact meaning of the terms used has been ascertained.

(a) The laws that apply to groups of establishments with their whole staff apply almost without exception to "commercial establishments". As a rule other establishments are also included. The term "commercial establishments" is given a very wide interpretation in such cases and includes practically all "not purely industrial establishments", as is, in fact, expressly stated in many cases, so that the majority of the separate groups mentioned below are included. In some countries, e.g. Bulgaria, France, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, Costa Rica, and Guatemala, the whole staff without exception is covered; in others, e.g. Argentina, Belgium, Italy, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, and Spain, certain groups of persons, such as members of the employer's family, persons in managerial or confidential positions, travellers, etc., are excluded from the scope of the regulations.

Special regulations on hours of work in shops, which are found particularly in the territories of the British Empire, nearly always contain a definition of the terms "shop" or "shop assistant". Exceptions for relatives of the employer, the managing staff, etc., are not so frequent in this case.

This definition of the scope of the regulations by a general description may be supplemented or replaced by definition by an enumeration of groups of establishments which are expressly excluded or included. The groups specially mentioned in this way in legislation are : (1) establishments in which the staff is mainly engaged in office work ; (2) establishments which are both industrial and commercial ; (3) establishments for the preventive and curative treatment of the sick ; (4) places of amusement and entertainment, etc.

The principal establishments in which the staff is mainly engaged in office work are offices in general, financial, exchange, and credit establishments, savings banks, insurance offices, news agencies, press bureaux and newspaper offices, agencies, offices of persons in the liberal professions, lawyers, notaries, architects, doctors, etc. Only a few countries give a definition of what is meant by "office work". In the Netherlands, the law defines offices as "all enclosed places where administrative or draughtsmen's work is usually done". In general, offices are included in

the regulations under a wider general term. In many cases they are specially mentioned only if certain kinds of offices are to be expressly excluded.

In such cases as the postal, telegraph, and telephone services, hotels, restaurants, hairdressing establishments, pharmacies, bakeries, butchers' shops, and road transport undertakings, in which the form and scope of the establishment may make it doubtful whether the commercial or industrial side is the more important, the limitation of hours may be effected by the regulations for industry or for commerce, or in many cases by special Orders. For these establishments, numerous exceptions are provided, either for certain groups of persons or for certain kinds of establishments. It may be recalled here that these undertakings do not necessarily come under the Washington Hours Convention, since the last paragraph of Article 1 leaves it to the competent authority in each country to define the line of division between industrial establishments, which are covered by the Convention, and commercial establishments, which are not. The inclusion of these establishments in the proposed regulations would therefore result in granting them international protection of hours of work so far as they have not already obtained it through the Washington Convention.

Establishments for the preventive and curative treatment of the sick are expressly covered by the regulations in Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Italy, Latvia, the Netherlands, Spain, and Basle-Town (Switzerland), with certain exceptions in some cases. Whether they are covered by a general description, and so come under the regulations in other countries where they are not expressly mentioned, is at least doubtful in view of their special character.

Places of entertainment and amusement and some other establishments are mentioned, in some cases with special regulations, in the legislation of only a few countries, e.g. Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, some States of South Africa and America, etc.

For all the groups of establishments mentioned, the legislation rarely makes any distinction between public and private undertakings. This is, in fact, definitely stated in certain countries, e.g. Belgium, Bulgaria, Finland, France, the Netherlands, Poland, and Tucuman (Argentina). Germany also extends the regulations to public undertakings, but provides that

where officials and employees are employed together in public departments, the regulations applying to officials' work shall, in the absence of stipulations to the contrary, also apply to employees' work. In Chile and Luxemburg, on the contrary, public undertakings are excluded from the scope of the regulations. In some countries religious establishments and charitable institutions are specifically included.

(b) In the few countries in which the legislation regulates the hours of work of employees separately, either in general or for specified groups of establishments, it was found necessary to explain the scope of the regulations by giving a definition of the terms "employee", "commercial employee", or "private employee". Thus, for instance, according to the Chilian Decree of 11 November 1925—subject to a decision by a conciliation board in doubtful cases — employees are defined as "all persons, of either sex or of any age, who perform work in which the mental effort predominates over the physical effort required". This definition, which is similar to that given in the Luxemburg Act of 31 October 1919, makes the fact of being considered an employee depend on the kind of work, i.e. on whether the mental or physical nature of the work done is predominant. This criterion is also found in legal decisions and jurisprudence, while the German regulations on the hours of work of employees have avoided the difficulty of finding an abstract definition by stating that they apply to all employed persons who perform superior work and at the same time follow one of the occupations mentioned in the list given in section 1 of the Employees' Insurance Act of 28 May 1924. In drawing up this list the salary level was to some extent used as a criterion. In Bills in other countries that have attempted to define the distinction between an employee and a worker, other criteria that have been used are the fact of belonging to a particular occupation or of being entrusted with managerial functions. It can certainly be stated that neither in existing or proposed legislation, nor in the legal decisions or jurisprudence within individual countries, and most of all not in different countries, can any uniform definition of the distinction between an employee and a worker be found. This is also evident from the statistics published by those few countries in which any distinction is made between employees and workers (in Austria, Australia, Canada, England, Italy, Scotland, Spain, and the United States of America this is not the

case), which contain the most contradictory figures. For instance, according to the German census of 1925 the number of hairdessers regarded as employees was 1,284 and as workers 59,932 ; while the French census of 1921 showed 20,259 employees and only 378 workers in the same occupation.

In two of the countries, Germany and Finland, in which there are special regulations on hours of work for employees in general and for commercial employees respectively, there is a special Act on hours of work for the protection of the workers employed in the same undertakings. In Bolivia, Chile, Luxemburg, and Salvador, on the contrary, the hours of work of workers employed in commercial undertakings are not limited by law.

Generally speaking, it can be said that not only employees but practically the whole staff of all non-industrial undertakings are covered by the national regulations on hours of work.

(c) Exemptions from these regulations apply more or less frequently to special groups of establishments or persons. Thus in Italy, for example, shop assistants in towns with less than 50,000 inhabitants, are excluded ; in several countries certain establishments for the sale of provisions ; in Finland, Poland, etc., pharmacies ; in Greece, Lithuania, and Portugal, hotels and restaurants ; in Austria, hospitals ; in Santa Fé (Argentina), public places of amusement ; in the Netherlands, newspaper offices ; in Ontario (Canada) and some Australian States, the sale of newspapers in the street and from railway bookstalls ; in Canton Glarus (Switzerland), horse and motor transport ; and in the Netherlands, post, telegraph, and telephone offices. As regards exemptions applying to certain classes of persons, family relationship with the employer and the fact of living with the employer are sometimes deciding factors ; it is to be noted that the exclusion may apply either to the family undertaking as such (e.g. in Gibraltar) or only to the employer's relatives (e.g. in Germany). A further ground for exemption is the exercise of confidential or managerial functions. Such exemption is rare or non-existent in legislation applying exclusively to employees and to shops, but it is more frequent in legislation applying to commercial establishments in general ; in the latter case there is generally a definition preventing too wide an interpretation of the exemption. Finally, the temporary nature of the employment, the absence of a contract, employment as traveller or representative, the amount of the salary, the fact of sharing in

the profits of the undertaking, and the number of persons employed in the undertaking all serve in certain cases as grounds for exemption.

The Limits and Distribution of Normal Hours of Work

Every system of regulations on hours of work makes a distinction between normal hours and exceptional hours. In view of the manifold and well-nigh innumerable needs of the economic system this is the only possible method. At the same time, if the legislation is to avoid opening the door to constant infringement of the normal hours of work that in principle are to be observed, it must be careful, in cases where the normal hours of work cannot be brought into harmony with practical needs, to regulate the exceptions, i.e. to keep them within definite bounds free from legal ambiguity by fixing the conditions and limits in which hours of work differing from the normal are to be permitted. This may be done in various way. If it is found that the limitation of hours of work, however flexible it may be, cannot be applied at all to some groups of establishments or persons, then, as has been seen above, these groups may be entirely excluded from the scope of the regulations in question and left without any regulations whatever. If, however, it is found that the general normal limit cannot be applied to some groups of establishments or persons, but that there is a need for some statutory limitation, then other and less drastic means are generally adopted. The special needs, permanent or temporary as the case may be, are taken into consideration, and special normal hours of work, which may be more or less favourable than the general normal hours, are prescribed for certain groups of establishments or persons. Alternatively, instead of these special normal hours, or in addition to them, temporary exceptions may be permitted. These exceptions, which will be mentioned again later, may in turn be limited or unlimited.

Whichever of the above methods is adopted, the law practically always defines the hours of work in two respects. A limit is fixed which must not be exceeded by the hours of work, and at the same time a period is specified over which the permitted maximum hours are distributed. Insufficient attention is often paid to this distinction, which sometimes enables the law to meet special needs by permitting different distribution periods,

without altering the limit, which on the average has still to be observed. Thus, for instance, for establishments in which the observance of the normal limit within the most usual period of a day or a week would involve a burden that cannot be justified on economic and social grounds, the law may authorise the distribution of working hours over a longer period, such as several weeks, either with or without certain restrictions, but in such a way that the average hours over this longer period do not exceed the normal maximum. It frequently happens, therefore, that the law considers that the normal maximum of 8 hours per day is being observed, although longer hours are worked on certain days, if the daily average taken over one or more weeks remains within the 8-hour limit. Provided that this distribution over a period other than the normal does not lead to any undue lengthening of daily hours of work, contrary to the purpose of the limitation of hours, it thus provides an effective means of encouraging the strict observance of the normal maximum hours and of avoiding as far as possible the granting of exceptions that result in increasing average working hours even when calculated over a longer period. A question closely connected with the above is the possibility of making up lost time, which is allowed by some laws. This is frequently considered an unlawful exceeding of the prescribed limit, but in many cases it only means that working hours are being differently distributed, while remaining within the limits of the legal maximum.

In addition, the law sometimes states the nature of the work for which hours are to be limited ; i.e. it states whether and to what extent continuous physical or mental exertion, intermittent work, and especially hours of mere attendance, are in question, and to what extent breaks during working hours are to be taken into consideration. This practically completes the list of terms used in regulations for fixing hours of work. It follows that in order to get an exact idea of the extent and efficacy of any particular system of regulations, it is necessary to bear in mind simultaneously, in their natural and close interdependence, all the provisions in force in which these terms are used.

(a) The legislation of 23 countries for commercial establishments as a rule provides a common or general maximum of hours of work. In some countries, e.g. Lithuania, the U. S. S. R., Costa Rica, and Panama, only a daily maximum is fixed ; most

countries, particularly in Europe, fix both a daily and a weekly maximum, either leaving the establishments to choose which they will adopt or (the more frequent case) imposing both together. As a general rule, the hours of work are 8 per day and 48 per week. Only a few countries, e.g. Costa Rica, Denmark, Lithuania, and Venezuela, fix daily hours at 9 or 10, or weekly hours at 55, like Canton Glarus (Switzerland). In the U. S. S. R., on the other hand, weekly hours of work for certain employees, such as verbatim reporters, must not exceed 36, and in Latvia the daily hours of work for intellectual workers must not exceed 6.

In the case of shops, for which hours of work, as already mentioned, are frequently limited by special Acts, it is more usual to have a special maximum rather than to apply the common maximum that holds for commercial establishments in general. As a rule both daily and weekly maxima are fixed, sometimes only a weekly one. The special weekly maximum varies from 50 to 54 hours, but reaches 60 hours in Manitoba and Ontario (Canada), 66 in Gibraltar, 66½ in British Columbia (Canada), and as much as 74 in Great Britain and the Irish Free State. In the last three cases, however, the necessary breaks for meals are counted in working hours ; and it may also be assumed that, in the larger shops at least, the hours actually worked are not so long.

The legislation on shop closing has naturally also an influence on the hours of work in shops [1]. Although the question of the opening and closing of shops and that of work in shops, which may also have to be done before opening and after closing time, are, strictly speaking, two different things, it must not be forgotten that in practice there is a close connection beween the two and therefore the regulations on hours of work should as far as possible be made consistent with the shop closing regulations if difficulties are to be avoided. A provision aiming at this consistency is the clause found in, e.g., the Austrian, German, and Polish legislation on hours and shop closing, to the effect that customers on the premises at the closing hour may be served after that hour.

In establishments of any kind in which the staff is mainly engaged in office work, the normal hours of work are as a rule

[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVIII, Nos. 1 and 2, July and Aug. 1928 : " Shop Closing Legislation in European Countries ".

those prescribed for commercial establishments in general. Special systems are in force, however, in Portugal (7-hour day for banks), the Netherlands (48 to 55 hours per week for certain kinds of offices), Chile (up to 56 hours per week for subordinate employees in banks and insurance companies), and Victoria (58 hours per week for men and 56 hours for women in booksellers' and newsagents' shops). In the U. S. S. R. the hours of work in public administrative offices, publishing offices, etc., may not exceed 6 per day.

Among establishments which are both industrial and commercial, the 8-hour day and 48-hour week are general for postal, telegraph, and telephone services. The same limits apply in many cases for hotels, restaurants, etc. ; as their work is partly continuous, however, the special provisions on continuous work in the laws that are common to industrial and commercial establishments can be applied to them. In many countries, e.g. France, there is a maximum of 9 or 10 hours' attendance per day for some categories of staff, while for others it is merely provided that they must be given an uninterrupted rest period of 12 hours between two working days. In the Netherlands a 10-hour day and in other countries a 56, 58, or 60-hour week is general for these establishments or some of them.

For hairdressers' establishments the legislation varies considerably. In some countries they must keep to the normal general maxima of 8 hours per day or 48 hours per week ; in others they are allowed longer normal hours. In many cases the maxima are graded according to the size of the locality ; in France, for example, the hours of attendance are 54 per week in towns with a population of over 500,000, 57 in those with a population between 100,000 and 500,000, and 60 in other towns.

Pharmacies, on account of the special nature of their work, might be supposed to need specially elastic regulations ; but in many cases they also come under the general normal system. Special hours have been fixed for them in, e.g., Basle-Town (10-hour day and 54-hour week), Greece (10 hours in winter and 10½ in summer), and the Netherlands (48 to 55 hours per week). In France the hours of attendance may be 9½ per day ; as in other similar cases, this is considered equivalent to the general maximum prescribed for hours of actual work.

Bakeries and butchers' shops must also observe the normal hours in many countries. In certain countries, e.g. Greece and

Victoria (Australia), special maxima are allowed, up to 11 hours per day and 56, 58, and 60 hours per week.

The hours of work in horse and motor transport undertakings still remain to be regulated in many countries ; special systems of hours will probably be adopted on account of the growing responsibility of the work owing to the modern increase in road traffic. At present some countries have legislation fixing special hours : in Basle-Town, for example, 51 hours per week for motor-lorry drivers, and 60 hours for taxicab chauffeurs. In other countries, e.g. Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, and Finland, the 48-hour week is the standard, but with the possibility of distribution over a longer period.

Some of the few countries whose legislation expressly deals with establishments for the preventive and curative treatment of the sick apply the normal maximum hours to them. This is so in Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Italy, and Latvia. In Germany a special enactment has instituted a 10-hour day and 60-hour week for these establishments. In Basle-Town it is merely provided that an uninterrupted rest period of 10 hours must be given between two consecutive days of work. In the Netherlands the maximum hours are 10 per day and 55 per week, and in Spain, provided that an agreement has been concluded between the parties concerned, hours may exceed 48 per week but may not be extended beyond 60 for women and 72 for men. In the U. S. S. R. the staff of these establishments is divided into four groups ; for the first three, the hours of work are 8, 6, or even 4 per day, while for the fourth group they are not defined.

In places of entertainment and amusement the general normal maxima are observed in Austria, Belgium, and Bulgaria. Chile has a working week of 56 hours ; in Peru the hours for children under 14 years of age are 6 per day and 33 per week, and for women and young persons they are 8 per day and 45 per week.

In legislation applying to employees as such the normal maxima of hours of work are not greater than 8 per day or 48 per week. In Finland, the working week is only 47 hours, and in Salvador the working day is 7 hours for women.

(b) The close connection between the limitation and the distribution of hours of work has already been pointed out. A fixed limit for working hours can in fact have more or less effect according to the length of the period over which the work-

ing hours are averaged. As a rule, as already mentioned, the basis of distribution is the day or the week or both.

In the case of undertakings and employees not engaged in industry there is a special method of distribution within the week which is becoming more and more frequent in practice, and is therefore already either permitted in the relevant legislation (as in general for commercial undertakings) or is specifically prescribed (especially for shops). This is the distribution of hours demanded by the Congress of Salaried Employees held at Montreux in 1926, acording to which a half-holiday can be given either on Saturday or on some other working day. If the time lost by this half-holiday is made up on the other days, then this is merely a special method of distribution of the normal weekly hours of work. This is the most usual case. When, however, the half-holiday is not made up by an extension of working hours, then the total hours per week will be reduced, as, for instance, in Poland, where work on Saturday is limited to 6 hours and therefore the total number of hours per week is only 46.

If a longer distribution period than the week is provided, either generally or for special undertakings, it is usually for work done in shifts, or for other work to which it would be difficult to apply the normal method of distribution. These periods, which are usually two, three, four, or six weeks, are sometimes, as in Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Finland, Germany, and Guatemala, allowed only by agreement between the trade organisations concerned, or subject to certain other conditions. In a few cases the year is even taken as the distribution period, as for instance in Italy and in the Netherlands ; in the latter country the Minister of Labour can authorise a distribution of hours of work for offices on a basis of 10 hours per day, 55 per week, and 2,500 per year. Examples of another method of distribution are found in Belgium for travel agencies, and in Greece for certain shops, where hours are longer in summer and shorter in winter.

(c) Making up lost time, so far as it is done within the general or special normal maximum hours, also represents a special system of distribution of hours; it is expressly mentioned only in the legislation applying to both industry and commerce of some European countries (Austria, France, Germany, Italy, and Spain), and in the legislation on hours of work for shops in Kenya, Tasmania, and Victoria. It is allowed—in many cases

subject to the fulfilment of certain conditions—when time has been lost by stoppage of the undertaking due to defects in machinery, accidents, *force majeure,* bad weather, public holidays, lack of work, or by special agreement. In many cases an expected loss of time may be made up in advance. Limits are usually fixed to the making up of lost time by fixing a maximum number of hours per day or per week which must in no case be exceeded.

These concessions to the employer, enabling him to use the whole of the normal working hours allowed by law, have their counterpart in some laws in a provision to prevent injury to the workers by extra time worked during the rest periods to which they are entitled. These laws prescribe—either in addition to or instead of higher rates of pay for the extra time—that the worker must be given an equivalent rest period (in some cases with pay) as a set-off for the extra time worked. Examples of such provisions are found in the legislation of Belgium, Bulgaria, Tucuman (Argentina), and Uruguay.

(d) The nature of the work that is limited and distributed in the ways described above is not usually defined more precisely in the legislation. As a rule only some such expression as "hours of work" or "hours of actual work" is used. When a more precise definition is given, as for example in Latvia, Lithuania, and Poland, it is generally similar to the interpretation adopted by the Conference of Ministers of Labour of Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, and Italy held in London in March 1926, for the same term in the Washington Convention. The decision reached by this Conference was that "working hours are the time during which the persons employed are at the disposal of the employer ; they do not include rest periods posted in accordance with Article 8 [of the Convention], during which the persons employed are not at the disposal of the employer."

Consequently the legislation generally excludes rest periods, or at least statutory rest periods of fairly long duration, from hours of work, either implicitly, by not mentioning them at all (e.g. in Bulgaria, Greece, Luxemburg, Portugal, and several States of America), or explicitly. In some parts of the British Empire, however, rest periods, including breaks for meal times, are included in the hours of work. Interruptions in the work arising from the nature of the work itself are not to be

regarded as rest periods in this sense. They are generally taken into account by fixing special limits for work in which they occur.

Exceptional Extension of the General or Special Normal Hours of Work

The cases mentioned above of the complete exclusion of certain groups of establishments or persons from the scope of the regulations, or the adoption of a special normal system of working hours for such groups, are exceptions in the sense that the general normal limits are not applied. Nevertheless they must be distinguished from the exceptions properly so called, which are now to be discussed. The latter refer to work for which in principle, in the absence of quite specific circumstances that are not provided for in the cases mentioned above, the general or special normal hours apply. Furthermore, if advantage is taken of the exceptions allowed, there are generally conditions to be satisfied—in particular with reference to rates of pay—which also do not exist in the first group of cases. The nearest equivalent to these cases is perhaps the exceptions allowed to meet permanent or periodically recurrent needs, which are therefore often bound up with less strict conditions and in particular do not usually involve any increased pay for the extra hours. Exceptions of this kind are frequently provided in the legislation for stocktaking or making up balance-sheets (e.g. Denmark, France, and Poland), for the delivery of goods, and removal or reorganisation of the undertaking (e.g. Finland and Greece), for preparatory or supplementary work (e.g. Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, and Lithuania), for technical reasons, such as the maintenance of machinery, etc. (e.g. Belgium, France, and Lithuania), for intermittent work (e.g. Czechoslovakia, Poland, and the Netherlands), and for special duties, such as supervisory work, etc. These exceptions are often described in the legislation as "permanent exceptions", which involves a certain contradiction in terms, since the expression "exception" contains the idea of a temporary departure from the rule. In contradistinction to these "permanent exceptions", which to some extent may be said to form a special rule, there are the "temporary exceptions", which are also allowed to a greater or less extent in the regulations of each country.

It would be quite beyond the scope of this article to deal at

all fully with all these exceptions, which naturally aim at an extension of the normal hours of work, and to discuss them for every country and every group of establishments or persons here considered. The reader must therefore be referred to the original report and in particular to the tables it contains ; for the general survey of the question which is the purpose of this article, it may suffice to give the following summary of the conditions imposed for the exceptional extension of normal hours of work.

(a) The reasons for which the various national laws allow permanent exceptions have already been mentioned. For temporary exceptions the chief reasons are : accident (actual or threatened), repairs, pressure of work, exceptional and urgent work (in most countries), to prevent deterioration of perishable materials (e.g. Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Luxemburg, and Portugal), reasons of public interest (e.g. Cordoba and Santa-Fé (Argentina), Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Italy, Latvia, and Poland), and especially reasons of national defence (France, Lithuania, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, and the U. S. S. R.). It is to be noted that several reasons recognised under different titles may partly cover the same ground. Thus in a country in which stocktaking or making up balance-sheets is not expressly recognised as a reason for an extension of hours, an extension may be justified by reference to "pressure of work" or "urgent work".

The extensions mentioned naturally are not of equal importance for all the groups of undertakings considered here. Thus, for instance, making up balance-sheets in commercial undertakings and pressure of work in shops in health resorts have in general more weight as reasons for extension than they would have in an ordinary office. If the reasons for extension of hours are considered in their relation to the groups of staff which are mainly affected by them, it will be seen that certain reasons affect the manual workers most, while others, for instance those connected with the sale of goods, office work, and supervisory work, affect salaried employees most.

In most countries an extension of hours is also allowed for reasons that are not specified in the legislation. For such extensions, however, precautions against abuse, such as previous authorisation by the competent authorities or agreement between the parties concerned, are more usual than for the other, more narrowly defined, extensions.

(b) Precautions of this kind, requiring the employer to comply with certain formalities for the use of the overtime allowed by the law, are not imposed at all in some countries (e.g. Bolivia, Kenya, Natal, South-West Africa). In others (e.g. Belgium, the Cape of Good Hope, Denmark, Finland, France, Greece, the Netherlands, New Zealand, and Portugal) there are special formalities in certain cases only. In a large number of countries, however, overtime in many cases—seldom in all—is made dependent on an agreement between the parties concerned.

Sometimes this agreement must take the form of an individual contract; this is the rule in Austria for wholesale commerce and commission houses. As a general rule, however, a collective agreement seems to be necessary. In addition to or instead of this agreement between the parties concerned, many countries also require action by the police, the administrative authorities, or the labour inspectorate. Sometimes overtime may only be worked after permission has been given by the competent authorities; in other cases it may begin, but it must be notified to the authorities later, usually within a specified period; in many cases, notification alone is sufficient. The reason for this notification or authorisation is usually to show the proposed or authorised extension of hours and the number of workers affected.

(c) Apart from overtime obviously affecting only individual employees (e.g. superintendents), very few laws give any indication whether the extension applies individually, or collectively to a whole establishment, a part of the establishment, or a part of the staff. It will however be found that the only provisions that throw any light on this question seem intended to restrict severely the scope of an extension. In Germany, for example, the overtime of two hours per day on 30 days a year allowed by the law and overtime allowed by collective agreement may only be worked collectively. Similar provisions exist in Lithuania. In South Australia overtime is only applicable to the persons designated in the Ministerial authorisation.

(d) Fairly often a further condition for extension is that it shall be kept within fixed limits. Many countries, however (e.g. Bolivia, Chile, and Salvador), impose no limit whatever, while others (e.g. Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Greece, Poland, and Portugal) do so only in certain cases. The limits may be fixed by the Act itself, or by regulations issued under

it or by the competent authorities; or it may be left to agreement between the parties concerned. Just as for the limitation of normal hours of work, so the overtime allowed may be calculated over a day, week, or other fixed period. The most usual method is the daily maximum, determined by fixing either the maximum number of extra hours or the daily maximum of working hours including overtime. In some cases, however, it is merely provided that the undertaking must be closed at a specified time. In addition to the daily limitation there is in many cases a further limitation, such as the fixing of a number of days per month or per year on which overtime may be worked, or the direct fixing of an annual total of hours that may not be exceeded. The latter number varies from 100 to 200.

(e) The provisions concerning the remuneration of overtime are of special importance. In many laws (e.g. those of Bulgaria, Greece, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Uruguay, and parts of Canada) there are no such provisions. In other countries (e.g. Czechoslovakia, France, Panama, Portugal, and Salvador) it is merely provided that overtime must be paid at higher rates than ordinary work, while all other countries fix a definite scale of remuneration for overtime. In most cases the legislation fixes the increase as a specified percentage of the normal rate, though in Austria, Germany, and Santa Fé (Argentina) this may be modified by a collective agreement between the parties concerned. Sometimes the same percentage holds for all overtime worked (e.g. in Austria, Bolivia, Chile, Finland, Germany, Guatemala, Italy, Portugal, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, New South Wales, Western Australia, and New Zealand). Sometimes it varies according to the number of hours of overtime worked (e.g. in Belgium, Costa Rica, Latvia, Poland, and Spain), according to the time of day at which it is worked (Ecuador, Poland, and Spain), or according to whether it is worked on working days, Sundays or public holidays (e.g. in Belgium, Ecuador, Latvia, Poland, Salvador, and Spain). When an increase is fixed it is almost always at least 25 per cent. of the normal rate; most frequently it is 50 per cent., and often it is as much as 100 per cent. for overtime in excess of two hours per day or on Sundays and holidays. In Australia the payment for overtime is fixed either in the form of a minimum salary for overtime or as an increase on the ordinary salary, or in some cases both together; "tea money" has also to be paid. In many countries employees in managerial positions or with a salary above a specified sum

are not entitled to special rates for overtime. The legislation of certain countries (e.g. Austria, Chile, and Latvia) contains provisions for calculating the overtime rates for employees who are paid by the month; in some of these cases special payments or commission received by the employee in addition to his normal salary are also taken into account. No distinction is generally made between the increase on time rates and that on piece rates. Austria, Ecuador, and Tucuman (Argentina) are the only States where there are special methods for calculating the increases on piece and job rates.

Enforcement of the Regulations.

The above examination should make it sufficiently clear that the subject under consideration has already been regulated to a greater or less extent by the national systems of legislation, and that these regulations are comparatively uniform as regards their essential principles. In studying the matter internationally, however, it is not sufficient merely to know the legislation, but the actual conditions in practice must also be considered. For this reason, occasional references to the practice have been made in the above pages. In general, it may be assumed that the legislation is essentially a fair reflection of the practice, since otherwise it would scarcely have come into existence or could not continue to exist. It must also be remembered that in addition to the parties directly concerned—the employers and the employed—the factory inspectorate sees to it that the legal regulations are observed, and, as could be shown, is frequently called upon to help in applying them. Finally, how far the regulations are applied in practice may be gauged from the provisions that make it easier to carry them out or aim at preventing contraventions by imposing penalties. Such provisions are found in practically every country; they are of value in proportion as the factory inspectorate, and in general the administration of the law and the practice of the courts, are imbued with a sense of the importance of the tasks laid upon them by social legislation.

(a) First among the measures intended to make the carrying out of the regulations easier are provisions that a timetable shall be drawn up or a register of working hours kept. Both employers and employed have an interest in both of these methods. The former can use them to organise the work systematically, and

the latter can know accurately the limits of their rights and when they may decline to work overtime without putting themselves in the wrong. In addition they make control by the factory inspectorate easier. For this reason the legislation frequently defines the minimum of information that the timetable and register must contain. Some laws lay down that if shifts are worked the times at which each shift, and sometimes each worker, begins and ends work shall be shown; and when specified rest periods are not included in working hours, these must naturally be indicated. Sometimes either a timetable or a register must be kept in which especially the actual hours of overtime worked can be clearly seen; sometimes both are prescribed. Generally, notices have to be posted in prominent places in the undertaking in such a way that everyone can make himself acquainted with their contents. In Salvador each undertaking must communicate its timetable (which is fixed by agreement between employers and employed) to the Departmental Council of Labour, this communication replacing the statutory obligation to post up a timetable or keep a register. Similar special provisions have been issued in other countries, varying with the special system of administration or distribution of hours in question.

(b) Penalties for contravention of the regulations may be imposed under the general criminal law or directly under the legislation on hours of work; the latter is the more frequent case. A comparison of these provisions in historical order of development shows that they are becoming more and more severe.

The person responsible in cases of contravention may be the employer (or his representative), or the employer and the employee. The employer alone is held responsible in France, Gibraltar, Grenada, Portugal, Salvador, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, and Uruguay. The employer's representative is equally responsible with the employer in Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands, Salta and Santa Fé (Argentina), and Venezuela. In the following countries the employer and the employee share the responsibility: Argentina (for women and children), Chile, Great Britain, Greece, Lithuania, Manitoba (Canada), Panama, Peru, Poland, the Transvaal (South Africa), etc.

In some cases any contravention of the regulations contained in the legislation is considered an offence. In other cases punishable offences are more precisely defined. Such special offences

may be failure to keep a register of hours of work, e.g. in Alberta (Canada); refusal to allow the competent authorities to enter the premises or to give the information required, e.g. in San Luis (Argentina); failure to notify the distribution of hours of work, e.g. in Salvador ; and breach of the regulations respecting the posting of timetables, e.g. in Belgium.

The authorities empowered to ascertain offences are generally the factory inspectors. In some countries they are replaced or assisted by the local police, the mayor of the commune, etc.

The authorities empowered to inflict penalties are in general the law courts. Sometimes it is the police authorities or police courts that act and in certain isolated cases it is the factory inspectors (in the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom), the administrative authorities (Czechoslovakia), the Government authorities (Spain), the General Directorate of Statistics and Labour (Santa Fé), and the Chief of the Executive (Salvador).

The nature and extent of the penalties are dealt with in detail in a great number of statutes. As a rule first offences are punishable by fines alone, and subsequent offences by imprisonment, with or without a fine. Some enactments, such as those in force in the Cape of Good Hope, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal, go so far as to prescribe hard labour for second and subsequent offences. In most cases a statutory maximum is fixed for the penalty that may be inflicted. Where a separate prosecution has to be undertaken in respect of every worker or employee affected by an offence of this kind, as in Belgium, a maximum is fixed for the aggregate fine that may be imposed. In San Luis (Argentina) a worker or employee who has not kept to the timetable may be temporarily suspended from his work or dismissed outright and in Portugal the fine may be the equivalent of one month's pay.

The right to appeal against decisions is generally allowed in these cases. Sometimes it is specifically stated that the fines imposed shall be used for social institutions, sickness and pension funds, etc.

International Regulations connected with the Question

If a survey of the questions connected with the proposed regulations is to be really exhaustive, it cannot stop short at a study of the national systems of regulations, however important and indispensable this may be. For this reason the importance

of the movement and of the need for an international system of regulations has been stressed in the preceding part of this article whenever an occasion offered. The Conference, however, when discussing this question must not ignore the fact than international regulations on hours of work already exist or are under consideration for several branches of employment. Among the grounds for bearing this fact in mind is the general consideration that the scope of the International Convention should from the outset be so defined that the legal position in regard to the regulations contained in it shall be quite clear and that the definition of the persons or establishments covered shall as far as possible be free from all ambiguity.

It was mentioned at the start that the Washington Convention already contains regulations on hours of work for some of the employees in industry. Another important event in this domain is the fact that the Conference at its Thirteenth Session in October 1929 will have to deal with the question of hours of work in maritime navigation, on which it had already stated its views at Genoa in 1920. It should also be noted that hours of work in agriculture have already been on the agenda of the Conference, although without concrete results, and that sooner or later they will have to be considered again. For this reason the Governing Body decided that these two occupational groups should also be excluded from the scope of the regulations under discussion. Finally, it is to be remembered that as far back as 1919 at Washington there was a suggestion that "commercial undertakings, banks, and administrative offices, with their numerous personnel" should be covered by the Hours Convention, and that the proposal was rejected because the majority of the Committee (9 votes to 6) were of opinion that the application of the eight-hour day would still be difficult in shops and small stores, and also that the question was not yet ripe for international regulation and deserved special study.

All this shows that international regulations on hours of work, so far as already adopted or considered, always cover both workers and employees, and are not based on categories of staff but on the kind of establishment or the nature of the employment.

The Possibilities of International Regulation

The preceding remarks on the facts and points of view that have to be kept in mind in considering a national system of

regulations on the hours of work of employees, and on the present stage of development of international regulations, should be sufficient to indicate in broad outline the questions that will have to be considered in the first discussion of the subject and the resulting questionnaire. These questions also give some idea of the possibilities of the contemplated regulations and their approximate contents.

It may safely be assumed that the form of a Draft Convention will be adopted for these regulations. Apart from other reasons this assumption seems especially justified in this case, since there is already a Draft Convention on the hours of work of workers and employees in industry; and unless particularly strong reasons are brought forward, it is difficult to see why the new regulations should not be placed on the same sound basis.

The first main question would refer to the scope of these regulations. In particular, the question will arise whether, in accordance with the examples of national and international regulations on hours of work that have to be taken into account, they should deal only with the hours of work of "employees", or whether their scope should simply extend to further groups of undertakings with their whole staff. Among the objections to the first solution is the fact mentioned above that very few countries have separate regulations for employees and for workers, and that, at least for the present, a clear and unambiguous definition of the term "employee" with any prospect of being internationally acceptable is scarcely possible. But over and above this, there is the necessary consequence of this solution that the workers employed in the same undertakings as the employees would have to go without the new international protection. The second solution, consisting in regulations for the whole staff of further groups of undertakings, would have this advantage over the first that it is in accordance with the predominant practice of national and international regulations on hours of work (regulation by groups of establishments), while it does not disregard the wishes of the employees. If the definition of the scope of the regulations is to be by groups of establishments, there is the further question whether all or only some, and if so which, of the groups referred to above should be included. Further, if the regulations are in principle to apply to the whole staff of the undertakings included, then it must be considered whether exemption is not desirable for certain groups of persons.

The fixing of maximum hours of work presupposes that a clear idea exists of the work to be limited. Among the points raised in the last request of the British Government for revision of the Washington Convention was the complaint that the Convention contains no such definition. The need for a definition is also suggested by the interpretation (quoted above) adopted by the London Conference of Ministers of Labour. It therefore seems desirable that a definite decision should be taken on this and also on the further question whether and to what extent rest periods are to be included in working hours.

Other points to be considered are the distinctions to be drawn between general and special normal working hours and between the limitation and the distribution of hours, and the exceptions to be permitted in each respect. All the relevant possibilities, such as weekly or daily limitation or both, the granting of a half-holiday, more or less favourable regulations for specified groups of undertakings and persons, making up lost time, the grounds, conditions, and limits for overtime, may be clearly seen from the above account of the national regulations.

It has already been mentioned that certain groups, particularly employees, in a number of countries have secured, by means of collective agreements, more favourable working conditions than those prescribed by law. This makes it necessary to consider whether and how such more favourable conditions can be protected in an International Draft Convention. Here, however, it must not be forgotten that the chief aim of international regulation is to secure a minimum standard of protection, so that it is often impossible even for more favourable statutory provisions in individual countries to be expressly confirmed in a Draft Convention. If in these circumstances the Draft Convention can support arrangements made by collective agreement, a condition for this must in any case be that there shall be no doubt as to the equivalence of such arrangements.

A further question to be settled is whether the Draft Convention shall contain clauses offering guarantees for the scrupulous enforcement of its provisions. If so, a distinction will have to be made between measures that serve to facilitate its application and enforcement in the individual country and those intended to ensure adequate control of its enforcement in the international sphere.

As has been seen, for persons employed in shops there is a

close connection between regulations on shop closing and on hours of work. For this reason the employees have expressed the wish that the new regulations should deal with shop closing. For various reasons, however, it would be better to leave this question to be dealt with separately.

Such, in broad outline, are the questions round which the discussion will centre. The study of the existing law and practice on which they are based is extensive; but however thorough it is, there may still be certain questions that have escaped this preliminary enquiry. As the representatives at the Conference will have a closer acquaintance with conditions in their own countries, it will be their duty to bring up supplementary questions for discussion in the debates on the points already mentioned. Here there are two important points of view to be kept in mind in estimating the value of any suggested extension. In the first place, all questions should be formulated that may affect the contents of the proposed regulations, irrespective of the replies that the Governments may later give them. In the second place, there is a certain limitation that seems desirable. In fact, questions concerning the practical application of isolated provisions of national law may be useful for explaining how the national system works and may therefore find a place in the discussion, but as far as possible they should be kept out of a questionnaire on international regulation. Within these limits, however, the franker and more exhaustive the study of all the relevant questions during the first discussion, then the more certain, definite, and practicable will be the solution to be sought during the second discussion.

One special and last point may be mentioned which throws light on the task before the Conference. Readers are acquainted with the objections that have been raised in recent years against the form and the substance of the Washington Convention. In spite, of the negotiations at the Forty-third Session of the Governing Body the idea of its revision cannot be considered abandoned, and further discussion must be reckoned with. As the proposed new regulations also deal with hours of work, it has therefore been suggested, though only by individuals and incidentally, that it might be desirable for the new regulations to be linked up with any revision that may be undertaken. While an outward bond of this kind must be rejected as undesirable on important grounds that are partly deducible from what has already been said here, yet the realisation of the close inner

connection that undoubtedly exists between the two cases may have a favourable influence on the drafting of the new regulations. For this reason special attention has been devoted in the Office report to all questions that have given rise to objections to the Washington Convention, so far as they also arise in connection with the new regulations. If the Conference succeeds in making full use of the experience gained in connection with the Washington Convention when drafting the new regulations, then it will have done fruitful work whose effects will go far beyond the narrower field of the regulations adopted. This consideration must already be borne in mind during the first discussion.

The Reform of Social Insurance in Austria

by

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The important reforms in the sphere of social legislation which were undertaken after the war by the new Austrian Republic were described in this Review [1] *some time ago by the author of the present article. Subsequently an account was given of workers' sickness insurance in Austria* [2], *which at the period in question (1923) was governed by a long series of Acts amending pre-war legislation. Since then social insurance has been the field of reforms which in scope and comprehensiveness are of far-reaching importance. These reforms are the subject of Dr. Lederer's present article.*

After a short historical survey of the events preceding the adoption of the new legislation, the author examines separately each of the three main branches of insurance (for employees, industrial workers, and agricultural workers respectively). He studies the main points of each system, so making clear both the resemblances and the points of divergence of the three, and the extent of the progress they represent as compared with the incomplete systems formerly in force.

This vast scheme for the reorganisation and extension of social insurance has been carried through in full conformity with the decisions of the 1925 and 1927 Sessions of the International Labour Conference. Austria has thus been able to ratify the Conventions concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases and concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents, and the two Conventions concerning sickness insurance (for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants, and for agricultural workers). It is highly satisfactory to find that the work of the International Labour Organisation is reflected throughout the measures that constitute this important reform.

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[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. II, Nos. 2-3, May-June 1921, pp. 1-29 : " Social Legislation in the Republic of Austria ". by Dr. Max Lederer.

[2] *Idem*, Vol. VIII, No 6, Dec. 1923, pp. 811-829: " Workers' Sickness Insurance in Austria ", by Prof. Fritz Hawelka.

Historical Survey

IT IS hardly more than ten years since the war ended, and Austria became a Republic, but in this short time her social legislation has developed enormously, both in scope and in volume. In the field of social insurance, however, economic conditions in the early years of this period made progress difficult if not impossible; and the inflation and depreciation of the currency led to the complete collapse of both the financial resources and the organisation of the old insurance institutions, so making it necessary to build up an entirely new system. Such a task needed thorough preparation, and it was only during the years 1926-1928 that it approached completion. There now exists a series of important and interesting Codes, which deal separately with various groups of insured persons (salaried employees, industrial workers, agricultural and forestry workers), and adapt the benefits of social insurance to the special needs of each group — a system which has made it possible to embody the workers' long-standing desire for old-age and invalidity insurance in legislation.

The history of the new social insurance legislation goes back to the days of the Empire. Between 1904 and 1911 the Government introduced various Bills to improve the system of sickness and accident insurance (which was based on the Acts of 1887 and 1888) and to combine old-age and invalidity insurance with it. But except for the Act of 1906 on pensions insurance for private employees, which was not considered satisfactory, none of these Bills became law. Just before the war — in June 1914 — it really did seem that a majority would at last be found to pass the Bill for the reform of workers' insurance; but at the last moment the Bill was wrecked by the objection of the Galician small peasant farmers to their inclusion in the scheme for the insurance of persons working on their own account.

Very soon after the war the new Republic again took up the preliminary work that had already been done, and in September 1920 a first draft of a Bill on old-age and invalidity insurance for workers was drawn up and circulated to the associations concerned, for expert criticism. In December 1921, after further study, the Government put forward a new Bill dealing with the insurance of manual workers and salaried employees together. But no progress was made until 1923, when it was decided to

separate the insurance of workers from that of employees, and to introduce separate Bills for each.

The proposals for employees' insurance were the first to be taken in hand. The Bill was introduced in the autumn of 1923 and was discussed for almost three years by a special committee. The committee's difficulties were partly due to the fact that it was not a matter of setting up a new organisation, but of transforming and extending existing insurance schemes, including the unsatisfactory pensions insurance already referred to, and partly to political controversies, in particular over the proposed introduction of proportional representation for the election of members of administrative bodies, the result being that the proceedings repeatedly came to a deadlock. Agreement was ultimately reached on fundamental principles ; the Bill was passed by the National Assembly on 29 December 1926 and came into force on 1 July 1927. It was soon found that the Act contained many obscurities and contradictions, and two Amending Acts were passed, one on 2 August 1927 and the other on 12 July 1928. The amended text, which involves many important alterations and additions to the principal Act, was published in a Ministerial Order of 22 August 1928, and is now in force.

The passage of this legislation not only provided substantially improved benefits for some 229,000 employees, but cleared the way for the reform of workers' insurance. In November 1925 the Government introduced a Bill dealing only with manual workers in industrial undertakings. At first matters advanced very slowly, but in October 1926 a compromise was reached by the chief political parties, and progress became more rapid. In the later stages of the discussions there were two main points on which opinions differed and feelings ran high ; these were the transitional arrangements for workers who were already aged, and the date on which the reform of workers' insurance and with it the new system of old-age and invalidity insurance were to come into force. After some animated debates these two questions were settled. In particular, it was decided that the coming into force of the reforms should be made dependent on the so-called "prosperity index", thus ensuring that the considerable charges imposed by the new legislation should not take effect until the Austrian economic situation showed some improvement. After the main obstacles had thus been removed, the Act for the reform of workers' insurance, applying to about 1,200,000 persons, became law on 1 April 1927.

The agricultural workers, who had been included in the earlier general sickness insurance scheme by an Amending Act of 1921, but were definitely excluded from the 1927 Act, were now the only class not covered by insurance legislation. Here special care was needed, in order to win the conservatively-minded agriculturists over to this reform. There were constitutional difficulties, too, for both the Federation and the Provinces claimed the right of legislating in this field. Ultimately the competence of the Federation in matters of social insurance was fully recognised in an amendment to the Constitution dated 30 July 1925 ; and after the Employees' and Workers' Insurance Acts had pointed the way to the solution of problems of organisation, the scheme for agricultural workers' insurance could be taken up in real earnest.

In the spring of 1927 the Federal Government introduced a Bill dealing only with sickness insurance for agricultural and forestry workers ; but this was soon withdrawn, and replaced in November by a new and more comprehensive draft dealing with all branches of social insurance, including old-age and invalidity insurance. The second Bill was referred to a committee, which discussed it in detail and proposed several changes. In particular, its scope was extended (although only under certain conditions) to cover landowners and tenant farmers working on their own account — a provision forming an interesting link between the insurance of persons working on their own account and that of persons working for an employer. Rapid progress was made, and after discussion by the National Assembly the Bill was passed on 18 July 1928. The new Act, which came into force on 1 January 1929, affects some 550,000 agricultural and forestry workers, as well as a considerable number of landowners and tenant farmers.

After this brief historical survey of social insurance reform in Austria, we shall now proceed to analyse the contents of the legislation in question, taking separately the provisions for each of the three groups (employees, industrial workers, and agricultural workers).

Employees' Insurance

The separate treatment of salaried employees has been a persistent feature of Austrian social legislation since 1910. The Commercial Assistants Act of that year, replaced by the Private

Employees Act of 1921, which is on more modern lines, only regulates the contract of service of salaried employees, but it gives them fairly wide protection from the social point of view, including such advantages as the right to payment of salary during illness or other justifiable absence from work, and the payment of a lump sum if they leave their employment after long service. The effects of this legislation are naturally felt in the field of social insurance, as higher benefits would have to be paid if an insurance scheme were really to provide maintenance for employees in danger of losing their livelihood. Apart from this, however, it was found that the pooling of risks between workers and employees was not to the latter's advantage.

It is to these considerations that the employees' insurance scheme owes its existence on an independent and organic basis. It is based on the idea of combining all the risks to the employee's means of livelihood, and providing him through social insurance in all such cases with the help he needs and is justified in expecting. This is why the Austrian employees' insurance scheme combines all branches — health, unemployment, accident, and pensions insurance. It also put an end to the multiplicity of carriers of insurance, and the many alternatives allowed, and set up a unified organisation with few and therefore more efficient institutions. One of the advantages of the new system is the possibility it affords of simpler and cheaper administration, and the payment of higher benefits with the money so saved.

Scope of the Act

The definition of the persons to be covered by insurance is one of the most disputed points in the Act, and was only finally settled by the Amending Act of 12 July 1928. Previously the definition of employees in the Private Employees Act had been taken as the criterion, and a person was considered liable to insurance if he was employed chiefly in the performance of work of a commercial character or in office work, so far as this was his principal remunerative occupation. This general definition was amplified in the original text of the Employees' Insurance Act by the addition of a list of occupations (given as examples), employment in which involved liability to insurance. In practice, however, this combination of general definition and enumeration gave rise to difficulties. In particular, the courts fell into the

error of concluding that persons covered by the Private Employees Act were also liable to insurance, and *vice versa*. Finally, the 1926 Act was not clear as to whether an occupation involving liability to insurance when it is the chief occupation has the same effect when it is only a subsidiary occupation. The Amending Act puts an end to all these uncertainties. Without using the terminology of the Private Employees Act, it defines insurable persons in terms of the kind of services rendered, and thus independently of the legislation governing their conditions of employment. Occupations involving liability to insurance are no longer determined by the expression "commercial, superior non-commercial, or office, work" but are specified individually in the Act.

The following occupations now involve liability to insurance : *(a)* the management of establishments and departments of establishments ; *(b)* posts involving inspection or control of the work of other persons (higher supervisory staff, foremen, charge hands, inspectors and overseers in mines and metal works, building foremen, and higher-grade estate, forestry, hunting, and garden staff) ; *(c)* correspondence, bookkeeping, accountancy. and cashiers' work, the registration of documents, copying, draughtsman's work, commercial assistance in credit and insurance institutions ; *(d)* work in connection with buying, selling, and warehousing, if it requires a certain degree of education and skill ; *(e)* artistic work and teaching ; *(f)* subordinate work of a scientific or medical nature ; employment in the upbringing of children and welfare work so far as these activities require scholastic or technical training ; *(g)* all other work requiring a general education considerably superior to that of the secondary schools.

Liability to insurance in these occupations is further dependent on the existence of a definite relationship between employer and employee. The criteria for this are the employer's right to dispose of the employee's time and to prescribe the kind of work he shall do, on the one hand, and on the other a legal obligation binding the employee, and the fact that he is an element in the economic organisation of the employer's business ; in addition, the employer must benefit or lose by the success or failure of the employee's work. Indentured apprentices in any of the occupations mentioned are also liable to insurance.

The Act does not distinguish between full and part-time employment in the specified occupations. It follows that State officials who do work of this kind as an auxiliary occupation come under the terms of the Act, and this also applies to persons who carry on their principal occupation on their own account. At first sight this comprehensiveness may seem surprising, but in view of the widespread unemployment among employees, the aim was to prevent lower social insurance contributions from encouraging employers to engage persons for part-time work only.

The liability to insurance is independent of the attainment of any minimum age limit, except that pensions insurance cannot begin until the insured person has completed his seventeenth year. As a rule the liability ends with the employment which is its basis. There may however be cases, such, for instance, as the unjustified dismissal of an employee, when it continues so long as the employee has a statutory claim on the employer for the payment of his salary.

Employees liable to insurance are termed in the Act "directly insured persons". There are also the "indirectly insured persons", i. e. dependants of a directly insured person, including his wife, children until the completion of their eighteenth year (legitimate, illegitimate, legitimised, adopted, or step-children), and parents and grandparents if they live permanently in the household of the insured person and are mainly supported by him. In the case of an insured man who has no wife living with him, the list may sometimes include a "housekeeper", i.e. a person who has lived in his household and kept house for him without remuneration for not less than eight months. All these indirectly insured persons are, within certain limits, admitted to the benefits of insurance, either during the lifetime of the directly insured person (e.g. sickness insurance), or after his death (survivors' insurance). This provision for dependants is a special feature of both the employees' and the workers' insurance schemes in Austria, and has a favourable influence on the health of large masses of the population that would otherwise be outside the scope of social insurance.

Risks and Benefits

The Act provides sickness, accident, and pensions insurance for salaried employees. Unemployment insurance is not

included, except for a provision that the contribution for it (fixed at 2.8 per cent. of the basic salary) shall be collected by the sickness funds with the other insurance contributions. In all other respects the provisions of the general Unemployment Insurance Act of 24 March 1920 and its Amending Acts apply equally to employees and to workers. The employees are opposed to this, because they consider that they lose by the pooling of the risks. It is not unlikely that before long the two classes will be separated.

Much more satisfactorily organised from the employees' point of view are the other branches of insurance, which, generally speaking, give much higher benefits, the higher scale being made possible by the abandonment of the earlier system of wage classes. All calculations, both of contributions and of benefits, are now based on the monthly salary of the insured person, including all supplementary payments such as bonuses, allowances, commission, percentages, etc., with the proviso that amounts below 80 schillings or above 400 schillings are left out of account. The maximum benefits under employees' insurance are thus based on a salary of 400 schillings a month. Although this figure does not entirely meet the wishes of the employees — when the last amending Act was under discussion the Social Democrats demanded that it should be raised to 600 schillings — it is high enough to enable the general body of employees to profit substantially by the scheme. We shall return to this point later on.

Sickness Insurance

The benefits under sickness insurance are medical benefit, sickness benefit, maternity benefit, and funeral benefit. Both directly and indirectly insured persons are entitled to medical benefit ; its duration is unlimited for out-patient treatment, but otherwise is limited to 78 weeks at most for the same illness. Dependants, however, are entitled to medical benefit only while the directly insured person is employed, or in receipt of sickness benefit, unemployment benefit, or an invalidity or old-age pension.

Medical benefit includes : *(a)* medical attendance, including the services of a doctor and a midwife at childbirth, and, if necessary, treatment for hydrophobia ; *(b)* provision of the necessary medicaments and therapeutical requirements, includ-

ing those required by a directly insured person for the maintenance or restoration of his working capacity ; *(c)* indispensable artificial dentures (for a directly insured person), and surgical and technical dental treatment. As a rule, medical treatment is given by doctors appointed by contract under the Sickness Insurance Act, but choice of other doctors is allowed to a limited extent. In lieu of free medical attendance, the necessary medicaments, and sickness benefit, a directly insured person may be given free treatment and maintenance in a hospital, if the nature of the disease requires it or suitable home treatment is not possible. Indirectly insured persons are, in such cases, only entitled to a grant towards the expenses of hospital treatment.

In addition to medical benefits in kind, sickness benefit to compensate for loss of earnings due to illness is also given. As employees are entitled to receive their full salary from the employer during the first four weeks of sickness, the Act provides for a waiting period of four weeks, as a general rule, before the payment of sickness benefit begins. For unemployed persons, however, who are also entitled to sickness insurance benefits, it runs from the first day of sickness. The duration of this benefit is 30 weeks at most for one and the same illness ; but it may be increased to 52 weeks after a qualifying period of twelve contribution months, and to 78 weeks after sixty contribution months. The daily rate of benefit is 2½ per cent. of the monthly salary of the insured person, up to a maximum of 7½ schillings per day. For unemployed persons, however, the sickness benefit may not exceed the unemployment benefit, which is about 3 schillings per day.

Maternity benefit is granted to a directly insured woman, and to the wife or widow of a directly insured man (in the latter case only within nine months from his death). It is payable at the rate of half the sickness benefit for 6 weeks after confinement. If the mother herself nurses her child, a nursing bonus of the same amount is payable for 12 weeks ; the latter period may be extended to 26 weeks under the Sickness Insurance Act. A single payment of 120 schillings per child is also made. A directly insured woman is further entitled to pregnancy benefit, which is also half the sickness benefit, and is payable for the last 6 weeks before the probable date of confinement, provided she does not follow her occupation during this period and does not receive her full salary from her employer.

Funeral benefit is payable on the death of an insured person to the person who pays the funeral expenses. On the death of a dependant the benefit is payable to the insured person. The amount varies with the age of the deceased person, there being three scales, with absolute minima of 60 schillings for the first two scales and 90 for the third.

Accident Insurance

The purpose of the accident insurance scheme is to provide compensation for damage arising from loss or diminution of working capacity, or from death, caused by an occupational accident. Certain specified diseases caused by the employment are placed on the same footing as occupational accidents ; a wide field is covered, including diseases due to working with the following substances and agents : lead, chrome, arsenic, mercury, and their compounds, phosphorus, benzene, carbon bi-sulphide, soot, tar, pitch, paraffin, anthracene, Röntgen rays and radio-active substances ; and also anthrax, and infectious diseases arising in subordinate scientific work (laboratories), etc.

Apart from the provision of the necessary curative treatment, the benefits consist of accident pensions and survivors' pensions. An accident pension is payable to an injured person if, and so long as, his working capacity is diminished by more than one-fourth. The amount varies with the loss of working capacity ; the full pension for total incapacity is 70 per cent. of the basic salary. For persons so helpless as to require the help and attendance of others, the pension may be increased by 50 per cent. For an insured person who was injured in his youth and whose basic salary is therefore low, the pension is calculated on at least the salary generally earned after ten years' service by employees in the same occupational group with similar training. The full pension may also be paid temporarily as a convalescence or retraining pension to persons who require special care for the restoration of their health after an accident, or to facilitate their transfer to a less dangerous occupation. The underlying purpose of the retraining pension is thus not so much compensation, as the constructive aim of adapting the employee to a future career.

If the accident pension is not less than 50 per cent. of the basic salary, the injured person is entitled to a children's allow-

ance of 10 per cent. of the pension for the first child and 5 per cent. for each additional child under eighteen supported by him.

If a directly insured person dies as the result of an accident, survivors' pensions are payable to the next of kin, i.e. to the widow and children, or, failing them, to parents, grandparents, brothers and sisters. The widow's pension is one-third of the full pension that would have been payable to the deceased, and is paid only so long as she does not remarry ; on remarriage she receives a lump sum of three times her yearly pension.

Each child under eighteen is entitled to an orphan's pension, which is one-sixth of the full pension of the deceased if one parent is living, and one-fourth if neither parent is living.

Other relatives may receive pensions which in the aggregate may not exceed one-third of the full pension of the deceased. If there are several claimants, parents take precedence over grandparents, and grandparents over brothers and sisters. Pensions paid to brothers and sisters cease when the recipients reach sixteen years of age.

The total amount of survivors' pensions may not exceed the full pension, together with the children's bonuses, if any, that would have been payable to the injured person at the time of his death. In certain cases (e.g. for very large families) the pensions must therefore be proportionally reduced, so as to keep within this maximum.

Pensions Insurance

It is in the field of pensions insurance, where the unsatisfactory provisions formerly in force had to be replaced by modern legislation, that the effects of the new Act have been most significant. The benefits under pensions insurance are invalidity, old-age, and survivors' pensions, together with certain commutation payments and dowry grants. A claim to a pension can in principle arise only after a qualifying period of not less than sixty contribution months. As a transitional measure, however, it is provided that this period may be reduced for persons who reach sixty years of age before the end of June 1930.

A directly insured person is entitled to an invalidity pension if he becomes incapable of working, i.e. if owing to physical infirmity or weakness of his physical or mental powers he is permanently incapable of performing the duties of his last post, or of taking up another employment which he might reasonably

be required to accept in view of his previous employment, practical training, and education. Thus the Act does not insist on absolute incapacity for work but only on incapacity relative to some occupation.

The pension consists of two parts, one fixed and one variable. The former is 35 per cent. of the basic salary (80-400 schillings per month) ; and the latter, 1 per cent. of the basic salary for every contribution year to the credit of the insured person. The total pension, however, must be at least 40 per cent. of the basic salary. If the insured person is quite helpless his pension is increased by 50 per cent., and in this case the minimum total pension is 75 per cent. of the basic salary. Children's allowances, equal to 6 per cent. of the basic salary, are also paid.

The old-age pension is on the same scale as the invalidity pension. It is payable to directly insured men who have completed their sixty-fifth year, and to directly insured women who have completed their sixtieth year, if they are not in an employment involving liability to insurance. These ages are reduced to sixty and fifty-five years respectively for persons with ten contribution years to their credit, a condition that will be satisfied in most cases.

Survivors' pensions are payable not only if a directly insured person dies, but also if he is missing, i.e. if no trustworthy news of him has been received for a year, and the circumstances render his death probable. In contrast to the accident insurance scheme, these pensions are payable only to widows and orphans. A widow's pension is half the pension the insured person would have been entitled to at the time of his death. An orphan's pension is 12 per cent. of the basic salary for an orphan with one parent living, and 24 per cent. for an orphan with neither parent living.

In addition to these pensions, the Act provides for the payment of a lump sum to *(a)* a widow who remarries, or who is not entitled to a pension because the qualifying period has not been completed ; *(b)* a housekeeper ; *(c)* in certain circumstances, parents, grandparents, and orphaned brothers or sisters who were supported by the insured person and are incapable of earning their living.

A benefit of some interest from the social point of view is the dowry grant, which is paid to a directly insured woman who ceases to be insured after five contribution years, with the object

of helping her to enter on married life. The amount depends on the number of contribution months to her credit, the minimum being three times the basic salary.

The benefits under the pensions insurance scheme represent a great improvement on the former conditions. To quote only a few figures, for invalidity and old-age pensions the monthly average under the old Austrian Pensions Insurance Act was 95 schillings, while under the new Act it is 155 schillings ; for widows' pensions the old monthly average was 47 schillings and the new is 80 schillings.

Finance

Benefits of this magnitude naturally call for considerable financial resources. These are derived from contributions paid in equal shares by the employer and the insured person, except in the case of insured persons under seventeen years of age, whose contributions are paid in full by the employer. For all branches of insurance the contributions for each insured person are calculated as percentages of his basic salary : 4.5 per cent. for sickness insurance, 2.8 per cent. for unemployment insurance, and 6.5 per cent. for accident and pensions insurance together. The total, 13.8 per cent., represents an appreciable burden for employer and employee alike. In view of the extensive benefits granted the contributions would have had to be even higher if it had not been decided to abandon the capitalisation system on which the former Austrian pensions insurance scheme was based. In its stead the present Act contents itself with a system of reserve funds — constituted in the first place by the yearly surpluses of the accident and pensions insurance institutions — which cover only a fraction of the value of the prospective pensions of present contributors.

Organisation

The organisation of employees' insurance has been simplified by the new Act. The former numerous pensions institutions have been replaced by a single Central Employees' Insurance Institute, and an employees' insurance fund for each Province. The Central Institute is responsible for the administration of accident and pensions insurance and the supervision of the provincial funds. The latter administer sickness insurance and

also receive notifications, keep records, and collect contributions. In Vienna, where there are the largest number of insured persons, there are four such funds — one each for commercial, industrial, and bank employees, and a general fund to which any insured person may belong. The other Provinces have one insurance fund each, to which all the employees in the Province belong. The carriers of insurance are thus few, but sound. Only for employees in agriculture and forestry, for journalists, and for chemists do special institutions survive, which enable the special circumstances of these occupational groups to be taken into account.

The internal organisation of the insurance institutions varies. In the insurance funds, the insured hold four-fifths of the seats on the most important administrative bodies, the governing body *(Vorstand)* and the general meeting, and the employers' representatives one-fifth. This proportion is however reversed in the supervising committee *(Überwachungsausschuss)*, which has a number of important duties — not only does it supervise all the operations of the fund, but it also has a voice in investments and in the appointment and dismissal of the chief officials — so that the employers have adequate means of making their influence felt. The employers' interests are still more strongly represented in the Central Institute and the special institutions, where the seats on all the administrative bodies are equally divided between employers and insured persons. The pensions committees, which have to consider the claims of insured persons or their survivors, are composed of one employers' representative, one employees' representative, and one official of the Central Institute. An interesting innovation is the adoption of proportional representation, which allows of a fair distribution of seats with due consideration of the interests of minorities. This enables trade unionists of all tendencies to elect representatives on the administrative bodies of the employees' insurance institutions in proportion to their numerical strength. In addition the Act contains a special provision for the first elections, enabling the various central organisations of employees to come to an understanding for a joint list of candidates to be presented through the employees' section of the local chamber of workers and employees. If such a list bears the signature of all the members of the section, it takes the place of an election, and the candidates on it are considered elected. An understanding of this kind was reached by the three chief federations of

employees' organisations — the free, Christian, and national federations — in November 1928, so that the first elections on the employees' side were not actually held.

Relations to Other Provident Institutions

As a result of the labour turnover that occurs in all occupations, it frequently happens that persons who were previously covered by some other provident scheme come under the employees' insurance scheme, and *vice versa*. Since these different periods of employment and their corresponding insurance rights are of vital importance for pensions insurance, the Act had to define the legal relation between employees' insurance and other similar provident institutions. Among these the principal are the pensions schemes of the Federation, the Provinces, the communes, the Federal railways, the Federal industrial undertakings (salt works, tobacco factories, the Government printing works, etc.), and other public bodies. The Act provides that on the transfer of an insurable employee to employment in such an undertaking a transfer payment shall be made to the new employer ; and in the reverse case there are arrangements for the employee to acquire insurance rights corresponding to his previous period of employment. The general result is that an employee does not suffer by changing from public to private employment or *vice versa*.

Transitional Provisions

The Act contains important transitional provisions. In particular, rights already acquired under the pensions insurance scheme have been considerably improved by being recalculated on a gold basis. Financial advantages are also given to the first participants in the scheme, and especially to persons who were advanced in years ; during the first years of the scheme their pensions are based on shorter qualifying periods and a more favourable computation of periods of employment.

Statistics

The large proportion of the population affected by the Act may be inferred from the following figures based on official

statistics. On 31 December 1928, there were 229,142 directly insured persons, with an equal number of indirectly insured dependants. The yearly receipts and expenditure for employees' insurance were as follows : contributions amounted to about 47,708,000 schillings, of which 24,067,000 were paid out in insurance benefits proper, 2,118,000 were expended on extended curative treatment, and 1,883,000 on costs of administration. The remainder — 19,640,000 schillings — was set towards the reserve fund.

Workers' Insurance

Workers' insurance is based on the Act of 1 April 1927. The most important provisions of this Act, however, notably those for old-age and invalidity insurance, are not yet in force. Matters are thus in a transitional stage, as the old Sickness and Accident Insurance Acts will remain in force until the so-called "prosperity index" is reached. Although these Acts have to some extent been modernised in the last few years by Amending Acts — there are no less than 23 for sickness insurance and 17 for accident insurance — they still grant inadequate benefits, so that the beneficiaries are really under-insured. As the new Act offers many valuable advantages over the old legislation, the workers naturally hope that it will soon be put into effect.

Scope of the Act

The Act covers all persons who are employed by way of trade on a basis of work, service, or apprenticeship, in industry, commerce, mining, or transport, as well as in home work or domestic service. The only persons excluded are : persons covered by the Employees' Insurance Act, or the sickness insurance scheme for Federal employees ; agricultural and forestry workers ; men serving in the army ; and persons who do domestic work and are constantly changing their employer, such as charwomen, washerwomen, seamstresses, sick nurses, etc. The last group of women workers, however, whose lot in old age is often very hard, have a right to voluntary insurance. In spite of these exceptions, the Act will apply to no fewer than 1,200,000 directly insured persons as well as their dependants.

The scheme comprises sickness, accident, invalidity, old-age, and survivors' insurance. Unlike the Employees' Insurance Act,

the Workers' Act does not deal with unemployment insurance, which is totally independent, and is therefore not touched upon in the following analysis.

Wage Classes

All directly insured persons are divided into wage classes according to their earnings, which serve as a basis for calculating benefits and contributions. There are to be ten classes, the lowest for daily earnings up to 1.2 schillings, and the highest for daily earnings above 8.4 schillings. This classification represents a great advance on the scheme formerly in force for sickness insurance, and it will at once abolish the existing under-insurance. During the debates on the Bill the Social Democrats demanded the insertion of a further wage class for daily earnings above 9.6 schillings, but this demand could not be met because benefits would have been too high and the financial structure of the scheme would have been wrecked.

Sickness Insurance

Under the new Act sickness benefit will in future be 5.4 schillings per day for the highest wage class, as against a former maximum of 4.2 schillings. As under employees' insurance, the period for which benefit is paid depends upon the number of contribution weeks to the credit of the insured person ; for workers who have been insured for at least thirty weeks the period is 52 weeks, but otherwise only 26. Here, too, there is a waiting period, but it is only three days, and is mainly intended to protect the funds against malingerers or persons who are only slightly ill. Even so the funds may pay sickness benefit for the first three days of an illness, if the insured person has no legal claim upon his employer for the payment of wages during these days. The remaining provisions of the sickness insurance scheme (in particular medical benefit) have no features requiring special mention, and are similar to those of the Employees' Insurance Act. This is also true of maternity benefit, except that under the Workers' Insurance Act a directly insured woman receives maternity and pregnancy benefits equal to the sickness benefit, while the wife of a directly insured man receives only half as much. The nursing bonus, however, is the same for both ; it amounts to half the sickness benefit.

Accident Insurance

In the sphere of accident insurance the new Act introduces distinct improvements. The risks covered have been extended to include accidents occurring *(a)* in the performance of domestic work in the service of the employer, and *(b)* on the journey from the place of residence to the workplace and *vice versa*. As for employees' insurance, industrial diseases are placed on the same footing as occupational accidents [1]. Accident pensions are naturally proportional to the loss of working capacity. The basic wage is the lower limit of the wage class to which the insured person belongs ; its maximum is therefore 8.4 schillings per day. The full monthly pension is 20 times the basic wage, and may thus be as much as 168 schillings, or 246 schillings for persons who are completely helpless. Partial pensions are calculated as a fraction of the full pension. Children's allowances are also paid. These amounts represent considerable increases over the accident pensions now in force. Survivors' insurance is similar to the corresponding scheme under employees' insurance.

For the sake of economy and to simplify procedure the Act. in many instances, encourages the commutation of pensions. On surrender of a pension a lump sum of not more than 100 times its monthly value may be paid, but only if there is a guarantee that the money will be properly spent, and if, further, the local poor-law authority agrees. Finally, it may be mentioned that the Act obliges the employer to indemnify the insurance institution for accidents caused by him or his representatives, either deliberately or through gross negligence.

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[1] This provision of the new Act is already in force, as arranged some time beforehand by the Seventeenth Amending Act of 16 February 1928 to the Accident Insurance Act. A more precise definition of the term " industrial diseases " is given in the Ministerial Order of 6 September 1928, which places on the same footing as occupational accidents all diseases affecting workers liable to compulsory insurance which are due to working with the following substances and agents : lead, chrome, arsenic, mercury, and their compounds ; phosphorus ; benzene and its homologues and the nitro and amido compounds of the aromatic carbohydrates ; carbon bisulphide ; soot, tar, pitch, paraffin, anthracene and allied substances ; various kinds of radiant energy, in particular Röntgen rays and radioactive substances ; and also glass-blowers' cataract. Under certain conditions infectious diseases of workers in scientific institutions and their laboratories, etc., and anthrax and glanders when occurring as occupational diseases, are also to be considered equivalent to accidents for purposes of the Accident Insurance Act.

Old-Age and Invalidity Insurance

The most interesting part of the new Act is that dealing with old-age and invalidity insurance. Here Austrian legislation was on untrodden ground, but on many points it was able to draw on foreign experience, especially on the long experience of Germany.

The qualifying period for an invalidity or old-age pension is 104 contribution weeks during the five years, including at least 52 contribution weeks during the three years, immediately before the occurrence of the contingency.

When this condition is satisfied, an insured person is entitled to an invalidity pension if he becomes disabled through sickness or other infirmity. A person is considered disabled who is not able, by the performance of work corresponding to his powers and faculties, to earn one-third of the amount ordinarily earned in the same occupation and district by persons with similar training who are physically and mentally sound. Here, then, the criterion is incapacity for any kind of work.

There are two scales for invalidity pensions. The higher scale is payable to directly insured persons who have at least 500 contribution weeks to their credit. The pension is 10 times the basic wage, i.e. the lower limit of the wage class to which the insured person belonged during the 104 weeks before the occurrence of the contingency. For an insured person in the highest wage class the pension would thus be 10 times 8.4 schillings, or 84 schillings per month. The lower scale, for insured persons with less than 500 contribution weeks to their credit, is two-thirds of the higher, so that the monthly rate for the highest wage class is 56 schillings. For persons who are completely helpless these sums are increased by 50 per cent.

When an insured person reaches the age of 65 years, the invalidity pension takes the form of an old-age pension, even if he is not disabled. Here, in contrast to employees' insurance, the two sexes are treated alike, and women also do not become entitled to an old-age pension until they are 65 years old.

To the old-age and invalidity pensions, and also to the survivors' pensions — which here have a somewhat more limited field of application than in employees' insurance — are added bonuses from public funds. The bonus payable to an insured person is 6 schillings per month; for a survivor's pension it is between 1.5 and 3 schillings. The proportion in which the

Federal Government, the Provinces, and the communes shall contribute to the cost of these bonuses will be settled by special legislation.

Finance

For employers and workers alike the financial charges imposed by the new Act will be very considerable. The sum required over and above the present contributions is estimated at 75 million schillings per year, a sum which cannot at the moment be demanded from Austria's enfeebled economic system. The economic situation is therefore a factor in determining when the reform is to come into force, a question which will be discussed later. The financial resources necessitated by the reform will be derived from a single social insurance contribution, payable in equal parts by the employer and the insured worker. Only for persons employed in undertakings where there is special risk of accident is there a supplement varying with the degree of risk, to be paid by the employer alone. The weekly contribution varies according to the wage class ; initially it is to be 70 per cent. of the basic daily wage, i.e. the lower limit of the wage class in which the insured person falls. In the highest wage class it is thus 5.88 schillings per week.

The financial system for all branches of insurance under the Act is that of the yearly distribution of costs, combined with a surplus over and above the year's expenditure. For sickness and accident insurance the surplus is to form a working reserve against emergencies. For old-age and invalidity insurance, on the contrary, the surplus is to be invested, and the interest on the resulting reserve fund will be treated as income and so help to avoid the necessity of raising contributions.

Organisation

The principle of centralisation finds clear expression in the organisation of workers' insurance, which has a very simple structure. For sickness insurance the insurance carriers are the sickness funds ; these are either district funds or they can retain the traditional forms recognised by law — works sickness funds, sickness funds of industrial guilds, association sickness funds, or miners' sickness funds. In all cases a certain minimum membership is prescribed in order to ensure financial soundness. The

same reason is at the base of a welcome movement towards concentration which is already visible in Austria ; an instance is the recent voluntary amalgamation of a large number of workers' sickness funds in Vienna. In this way the preparatory work for the far-reaching duties awaiting the funds is being carried out as it were by itself. These duties will include not only the administration of actual sickness insurance, but also the recording of changes in the list of insured persons, the calculation, assessment, and collection of all social insurance contributions, collaboration in assessing claims to benefit under accident and invalidity insurance, etc. The carrier of accident and invalidity insurance is the Workers' Insurance Institute in Vienna ; it is the sole central organisation of the entire system. It was originally intended to have three institutions of this kind — in Vienna, Graz, and Salzburg — but the plan was dropped in order to secure greater unity of administration.

The composition of the administrative bodies is much the same as in employees' insurance. The workers have four-fifths of the seats on the governing body and the general meeting of the sickness funds, and the employers have the same majority on the supervising committee. On the administrative bodies of the Workers' Insurance Institute, on the contrary, the two groups are equally represented. In addition to 20 representatives of the employers and 20 of the workers, the governing body of the Institute includes 8 representatives of the public authorities, who have the right to vote. This is to be explained by the interest that the public authorities contributing to invalidity, old-age, and survivors' pensions have in the economical administration of these branches of insurance. Proportional representation is also applied in the elections to the administrative bodies of workers' insurance.

Transitional Provisions

The last part of the Act consists of transitional provisions, whose importance is increased by the fact that, owing to the acute economic depression in Austria — unemployment is still abnormally high, the numbers ranging from 150,000 to 200,000 according to the season — the coming into force of the reform has been temporarily postponed. The first necessity was to provide for those groups of insured persons who could not really wait any longer for help. These are the workers over 60 years

of age, who suffer most from the unfavourable state of the labour market. Then there are the present holders of accident pensions, which were calculated on the basis of the old Act, and are now quite inadequate. The new Act therefore provides for a revalorisation of these accident pensions, which took effect on 1 July 1927.

For elderly workers also there is a provisional scheme of "old-age welfare pensions", which came into force on 1 October 1927, and now covers about 47,000 persons. The pension is two-thirds of the statutory unemployment benefit ; it is payable to any Austrian citizen who has completed his sixtieth year and satisfies the statutory requirements for the receipt of unemployment benefit or emergency relief (i.e. the allowance that, in Austria, is paid to necessitous unemployed persons whose right to benefit is exhausted). The old-age welfare pension is a permanent grant, subject to no control and entailing no notification. It is not withdrawn from pensioners of over sixty-five years of age if they are temporarily employed from time to time. The pension is small — it varies from 40 to 60 schillings a month — but it is a real blessing to many aged workers.

From other points of view, however, this kind of pension is open to criticism. The expenditure involved is not actuarially covered by insurance, but is met by a special levy collected from employers and workers in the form of an addition to the unemployment contribution. The pensions also overlap with unemployment relief, so that disputes are possible in border-line cases. Since, however, the system is a transitional measure, these considerations may be left in the background.

The Act also offers various advantages, during the initial period of the scheme, to younger workers who are insured under the existing system. They are allowed to count a maximum of 100 contribution weeks for the period before 1 January 1927, and also all periods of compulsory sickness insurance since the same date, towards the qualifying period for the future old-age and invalidity insurance. In this way the right to a pension is in some cases already acquired without the payment of contributions.

Date of Coming into Force

The actual date of the coming into force of workers' insurance has been left open for the time being. It is to be fixed later on

by an Order of the Federal Government, subject to the approval of the Principal Committee *(Hauptausschuss)* of the Austrian National Assembly. The Order is to be issued when the half-yearly average of unemployed persons has fallen to 100,000 and the combined effects of increased foreign trade, increased inland traffic, and increased agricultural production bring about such improvement in the general economic situation that industry, commerce, and the public finances appear to be compensated for the additional burdens imposed by the application of the Act. This proviso, which makes the coming into force of the reform dependent on the attainment of a certain measure of prosperity, was opposed by the Social Democrats, who described it as a mere device for adjourning a decision. It cannot however be considered as such, for much importance is attached to the success of the reform in Austrian Government circles, and the representatives of the Christian trade unions are also pressing for it to take effect at an early date. Furthermore, as there have recently been signs that a general economic improvement is beginning in Austria, there is reason to hope that it will not be very long before full effect is given to the new Act.

This hope is strengthened by the declarations made in the National Assembly on 7 May 1929 by the newly elected Federal Chancellor, Mr. Streeruwitz. According to these declarations the Government will give its especial attention to questions of social insurance, and thinks that it will be possible to expedite the coming into force of old-age and invalidity insurance. It may presumably be concluded that the Government and the majority Parties will not insist on the literal fulfilment of the "prosperity index" condition. It seems much more probable that the increased charge imposed on industry by workers' insurance will be met by compensation in another way, namely, by a corresponding reduction of taxation.

Agricultural Workers' Insurance

The Agricultural Workers' Insurance Act of 18 July 1928 represents a very special advance on modern lines, and may be held up as an example to other agricultural countries. Reference has already been made to the obstacles that had to be overcome in preparing the Act. These are explained partly by the difficulties inherent in the subject, but partly also by the aversion

of the conservatively-minded farmers to innovations that meant the sweeping away of a large body of tradition. It was therefore important to win the approval for the reform of agriculturists working on their own account. These considerations justify the combination of compulsory insurance for persons working for an employer with a contingent liability to insurance for persons working on their own account, which is a special feature of the Act. In other respects, too, the Act differs from those analysed above in ways that may perhaps best be described as a mixture of daring and caution in the path of social progress. Undoubtedly it is in many ways below the level of the Workers' Insurance Act. Instances are the cash benefits, which are lower all along the line ; the absence of compulsory family insurance ; and the more limited representation of insured persons on administrative bodies. But the very great advantages offered by the Act must not be underestimated. Not only does it do away with the multiplicity and diversity of territorial funds that formerly dealt with sickness insurance for workers in agriculture and forestry, but it also extends the scope of accident insurance and introduces old-age and invalidity insurance, so that its advantages easily outweigh its disadvantages.

Scope of the Act

The Act covers all persons who are gainfully employed by way of trade by another person, in any of the following : agricultural or forestry undertakings, including gardens ; hunting or fishing ; subsidiary agricultural or forestry undertakings ; or as domestic servants of an employer in agriculture or forestry. Workers employed in small undertakings (employing not more than five persons) of agricultural co-operative societies, such as dairy farms and storehouses, are also liable to insurance. Workers employed in larger undertakings of the same kind will as before come under industrial workers' insurance. The following are not liable to insurance : *(a)* the wife of an employer ; *(b)* persons who notwithstanding occasional agricultural work derive their principal income from a life interest in land *(Ausgedinge)* attested by a notary or entered in the land register ; *(c)* persons in receipt of poor-law relief who only occasionally engage in employment insurable under the Act. All other members of the employer's family — e.g. children, parents, brothers and sisters — are in principle liable to insurance if they

work on the undertaking. The Act provides, however, that in individual cases any or all of these relatives may be released from the liability to insurance by a declaration made by the employer. This declaration must be in writing, and must state that in case of sickness, accident, or invalidity the employer undertakes to maintain these persons and provide suitable treatment for them at his own expense. This procedure may however be declared inadmissible in any Province on the application of the prefect of the Province *(Landeshauptmann)* to the Federal Government.

While this provision may, in practice, lead to a serious narrowing of the liability to insurance, there is another that foreshadows an important extension of it. On the proposal of the principal agricultural and forestry organisations in a Province and of the Government of the Province, owners or tenant farmers of agricultural or forestry undertakings whose livelihood is mainly derived from such undertakings may, by a Ministerial Order, be compulsorily brought under accident and invalidity insurance, or accident insurance only. Once included they cannot again be excluded. All landowners and tenant farmers in the country have thus a contingent liability to insurance, irrespective of the size of their undertaking. In this way the risks are pooled as between independent and dependent workers.

This contingency is accompanied by certain provisos to safeguard the interests of the workers. These safeguards are justified by the argument that landowners and tenant farmers form an unfavourable age group for insurance purposes, and also that their families are larger on the average, so that they represent a worse risk than the agricultural and forestry workers. The Act therefore stipulates that the benefits granted to landowners and tenant farmers under invalidity insurance shall not include invalidity pensions until experience shows that their inclusion will not result in any increase in the burden on ordinary insured workers. All other benefits, however, are granted to independent persons on the same terms as to employed persons. As there is no question of daily or weekly wages, the wage class in which these persons can be insured is to be fixed separately for each Province by an Order ; the highest class allowed is the sixth, though, as will be seen below, higher classes are provided for employed persons.

This contingent compulsion only applies to accident and invalidity insurance. Landowners and tenant farmers are liable

to no such compulsion for sickness insurance, but they may insure voluntarily against sickness in the agricultural sickness funds. A fund may not however undertake this insurance unless at least 500 persons of the class in question notify their intention to insure. The insurance must be administered by a separate section of the fund, and its cost must be met by contributions paid by the voluntarily insured persons. Independent persons may be granted all the benefits available under the sickness insurance scheme, except sickness benefit. The rules of the funds settle all other details, including the amount of the contributions, and the participation of voluntarily insured persons in the administration of the funds.

Wage Classes

As in the general workers' insurance scheme, insured agricultural workers are divided into wage classes according to their earnings. There are nine of these classes, the lowest for daily earnings up to 80 groschen, and the highest for daily earnings above 6 schillings. The figures are thus substantially lower than for industrial workers' insurance, a circumstance which reacts on all the pecuniary benefits granted to agricultural workers. This difference is justified by the fact that in agriculture, where many workers live in their employer's household, or at least receive board or other payments in kind *(deputat)* from him, the amount of cash earned is not of such importance as it is for industrial workers, who have to cover all their needs out of their cash earnings. This may have influenced the provision in the Act that no worker who lives in his employer's household or is boarded by him may be included in either of the two highest wage classes. Moreover, the highest wage class (the ninth) is solely for forestry and sawmill workers, who in a sense represent an intermediate class between agricultural and industrial workers. Itinerant and seasonal workers are favoured by being as a rule included in the eighth wage class.

The earnings which determine the wage class include not only money wages but also all payments in kind. The latter are to be valued at average prices, to be fixed for each Province by the prefect, after hearing the views of all the groups concerned. The employers have to keep wage lists giving all information necessary to determine the wage class to which any person

employed by them belongs. Furthermore, when an employer notifies an insured person to an insurance fund he must at the same time furnish all information necessary to determine that person's wage class, and he must notify all subsequent changes in this information as they occur. More detailed administrative regulations concerning these wage lists were issued in a Ministerial Order of 4 December 1928.

Sickness Insurance

The benefits under sickness insurance are in general much the same as those under the general workers' insurance scheme. As regards medical benefit, however, the agricultural insurance funds enjoy a higher degree of autonomy. Their rules may replace the system of contract doctors by one in which free though restricted choice of doctors is allowed ; or the equivalent of the services of a doctor or midwife and the supply of medicaments may be paid in cash. This is explained by the peculiar conditions of life in the country, where it is not always possible to establish reliable medical and dispensing services.

Sickness benefit is due from the fourth day of incapacity to work. In fundamental contrast to the arrangements under the general workers' insurance scheme, however, it is not always paid to the insured person himself, but, in certain circumstances, to his employer. This is so, in particular, when, and so long as, the insured person is given full board and lodging by his employer, or continues to receive at least 80 per cent. of his wages in kind or in cash. The agricultural worker's insurance is thus transformed into a scheme for insuring his employer against damage. The pecuniary benefit varies according to the wage class of the insured person, from 0.6 to 4.2 schillings per day ; it is about 70 per cent. of the daily earnings. But as the two highest wage classes do not touch the mass of agricultural workers, the possible upper limit of sickness benefit for most insured persons is only 3 schillings per day, or considerably less than that for industrial workers. On this point there is already some discontent among agricultural workers, whose organisations are trying to contest this under-insurance.

Maternity benefit has also certain special features. A distinction is made between insured women who live in the employer's household or are boarded by him, and other insured women.

The former receive only a lump sum, whose amount is fixed by the rules of the fund, and which is held to settle all claims of the mother on the insurance. It may vary for the different wage classes, but it must not be less than 20 times the lower limit of the fourth class ; i.e. the minimum is 36 schillings. Insured women who do not live in the employer's household, like women in industrial employment, receive pregnancy and maternity benefit, at the same rate as their sickness benefit, for six weeks before and six weeks after their confinement. They are also entitled to a nursing bonus, which is only payable to women living in the employer's household if the rules of the insurance fund so provide.

There is no compulsory insurance of the members of an insured person's family in the agricultural workers' scheme, but the rules of the funds may provide for their voluntary insurance. This is a defect in the Act, but its effects are lessened by the fact that there are many small owners in agriculture, the members of whose families work with them on the undertaking, and are themselves directly insured. All the same, the optional insurance of dependants is of great consequence for the wife, and also for the other members of agricultural workers' families. The insurance of the members of a directly insured person's family, covering all sickness insurance benefits in kind, may also be made dependent on the payment of special contributions.

Accident Insurance

The provisions on accident insurance of the Agricultural Workers' Insurance Act are practically the same as those of the general Workers' Insurance Act. The definition of occupational accidents is on the same lines, but the conditions for the grant of benefit are less favourable. An accident pension, for instance, is not granted unless the injured person's working capacity has been reduced by more than one-third, or one-fifth for forestry and sawmill workers. If the loss of working capacity is less than these fractions the pension is replaced by the payment of a lump sum, varying with the degree of injury in each case, with a maximum of 50 times the full monthly pension. Since the basis of assessment for all cash benefits in accident insurance is the average basic wage — i.e. the lower limit of the wage class to which the insured person belongs — taken over the 52 weeks before the accident, the ill effects of the unfavourable system of

wage classes are also felt in accident insurance. Children's allowances and survivors' pensions are granted on the same scales as in the general workers' insurance scheme.

Old-Age and Invalidity Insurance

Old-age and invalidity insurance have also many analogies with the general workers' scheme. In particular, the qualifying period and the definition of invalidity are the same, except that persons whose invalidity is attributable to a congenital infirmity are not entitled to an invalidity pension.

Invalidity pensions are calculated on the same principles as in the general workers' scheme. Here too there is a higher and a lower scale, the higher being granted to persons with at least 500 contribution weeks to their credit at the date of the contingency entitling to benefit. The amounts are computed from the basic wage, and are thus lower than those for industrial workers.

When an insured person reaches the age of sixty-five he is entitled to an old-age pension calculated in the same way. If he postpones his application for the pension, it is increased by ¾ per cent. for each month's postponement.

The arrangements for survivors' pensions for agricultural workers are also similar to those for industrial workers.

A supplementary grant out of public funds is added to the old-age, invalidity, and survivors' pensions ; this is also paid to aliens if they are nationals of countries that give reciprocal treatment to Austrians.

Finance

The financial resources of agricultural workers' insurance are derived from contributions which vary with the wage class. The Act fixes only the accident and invalidity insurance contributions as percentages of the basic wage ; for sickness insurance, on the contrary, the contributions are to be fixed by the rules of each agricultural insurance fund, and they may in consequence vary in different insurance districts. The prefect of the Province. however, has certain rights of supervision, and he may require the contributions to be increased if they prove insufficient.

For accident insurance the weekly contribution is 5 per cent., and for invalidity insurance 20 per cent., of the basic wage. The

Federal Minister of Social Administration has the right to revise these rates of contribution from time to time. Here too an extra-risk premium is payable by heads of forestry undertakings for the accident insurance of their workers. Apart from this supplement, which falls wholly on the employer, accident insurance contributions are paid as to two-thirds by the employer and one-third by the employed person, and all other contributions for compulsory insurance are paid in equal parts by employer and employed. The employer must deduct the insured person's contribution from his wages and remit it with his own contribution to the competent agricultural sickness fund. Until so remitted the workers' contributions are considered as money held by the employer in trust, and their wrongful use is considered embezzlement.

Organisation

The carriers of the insurance will be, for sickness insurance, the agricultural sickness funds ; for accident and invalidity insurance, agricultural workers' insurance institutions are being set up. The duties of the former include the administration of sickness insurance and collaboration in certain work connected with the other branches of insurance ; in particular, the registration and notification of insured persons, claims, etc., and the calculation and collection of contributions. As a rule one fund will be set up for each Province, but the prefect of a Province may decree that several funds are to be set up in the Province, and he must then fix the headquarters and the district of each fund. A regional fund of this kind must have a membership of at least 2,000. The administrative bodies of the funds are the general meeting, the governing body, and the supervising committee. On the first two the employers' representatives have two-fifths and the insured persons three-fifths of the seats ; on the supervising committee the proportion is reversed. The delegates to the general meeting are chosen by direct election on the system of proportional representation ; their number depends on the membership of the fund, the ratio of delegates to members diminishing as the total membership increases.

The funds are empowered to set up local offices (*Ortsstellen* and *Bezirkstellen*) to deal with local business and facilitate dealings with insured persons. In Provinces where several funds exist these funds may also combine to form federations, for the

common pursuit of objects within their purview. Accident and invalidity insurance is administered by five agricultural insurance institutions, in Vienna, Linz, Graz, Klagenfurt, and Innsbruck. They have both to supervise the working of the sickness funds and to perform their own duties, as already described. In particular, they are the carriers of pensions insurance. On their administrative bodies (governing body and general meeting), as well as on the pensions committees, which deal with the claims of insured persons, employers and insured persons have each the same number of seats.

Date of Coming into Force

The provisions of the Agricultural Workers' Insurance Act on sickness and accident insurance came into force on 1 January 1929, except for the Provinces of Burgenland, Styria, Upper Austria, and Salzburg, where, as the organisation of sickness insurance was in arrears, this part of the scheme will come into force later, but in any case not later than 1 January 1930 [1]. The date for the coming into force of old-age and invalidity insurance has been left open ; it has been made dependent on that chosen for the general scheme of workers' insurance, and will be fixed subsequently by an Order. Here too, therefore, the principle of the "prosperity index" has been applied.

It seems a natural consequence of this that a provisional old-age welfare scheme has been introduced for aged agricultural workers. In the main it is modelled on the industrial workers' scheme, but its benefits are somewhat smaller. Old-age welfare pensions for agricultural and forestry workers over sixty years of age came into force on 1 January 1929 ; they are being paid to more than 15,000 persons.

Conclusion

Looking back on the foregoing survey, we may say that the reform of Austrian social insurance is a great undertaking well carried out. It has many interesting features. It extends the scope and value of insurance, not only by increasing the numbers of persons insured, but also by opening up new branches

[1] 1 March 1929 has been fixed as the date for the coming into force of agricultural workers' sickness insurance in the Province of Salzburg.

of insurance, and raising existing benefits to a much higher level. Benefits are given a measure of flexibility by a provision that when the general economic situation improves, the rules of the insurance funds may grant further benefits beyond the compulsory minimum now prescribed. Another salient feature is the growing importance assigned to the welfare of the family in the general structure of social insurance, which thus becomes a conspicuous collaborator in the high social task of raising the general level of the nation's health. Lastly, a special characteristic of this reform is the abandonment of the capitalisation system formerly applied, and the adoption of a system of annual distribution of costs, combined with the building up of a reserve fund, a change that enables substantially higher benefits to be granted without unduly increasing the burden of contributions. All these special features of the Austrian insurance reform may perhaps be of interest to other countries, especially at a time like the present when close attention is being paid to the problems of social insurance throughout the civilised world.

The Problem of Rural Settlement in Spain

by

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In Spain there are two forms of agricultural labour — wage-paid labour and labour which has a direct relation to or interest in the occupation of land. In a previous number of the Review [1] *the conditions governing the lives of wage-paid labour in Spanish agriculture were described. The present article, which is the result of observations made during a journey through Spain, takes up the other half of the question and discusses the fundamental conditions attaching to some forms of the occupation of land by agricultural labour groups.*

Historical Survey

IN SPAIN the problem of rural settlement in its present form dates back to the period when the Arabs were expelled from the Peninsula [2]. The Arabs, succeeding other races (Phoenicians, Romans, and Visigoths) who practised different systems of agriculture, had made considerable improvements in agricultural conditions in Spain. By making use of Roman works which had fallen into disuse and undertaking new improvements they had done much to develop irrigation, particularly in the east and south. They had also introduced new crops, such as rice, fruit trees, sugar cane, which require active cultivation and which consequently led to dividing up the land into relatively small holdings.[3]

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[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XI, No. 6, June 1925, pp. 830-851 : "The Agrarian Problem in Spain", by Fernando de los Rios.

[2] The literature on the history of land settlement in Spain is very abundant. It will be sufficient here to mention a good outline of the question : "La colonisación y repoblación interior en los principales paises y en España", in *Boletín de la Junta central de Colonisación y Repoblación interior*, Vol. II, 1919, pp. 3-84 ; Madrid.

[3] *Intensive* systems of cultivation, as opposed to *extensive*, may be divided into two groups ; *active* systems, to which *labour* contributes more than *capital*, and *industrial* systems, to which *capital* contributes more than *labour*. Experience serves more and more to show that, while both labour and capital are factors which limit the extent of a farm, the first is more important than the second. Consequently active systems are more adapted to the small family holding, while industrial systems are more suited to the farm of medium size.

In spite of the dry climate of a large part of Spain[1] the land was comparatively productive, especially of wheat, oil, wine, and fruit. The development of agriculture, which was the only form of human activity at that period, was necessarily accompanied by a certain density of population. No precise data are available on this subject, but most writers agree in estimating that in the fifteenth century, when the Arabs were at the height of their economic power, Spain had a population of 9 million[2], which at that time might be considered sufficient, especially as it must have been grouped mainly in the districts near the sea.

When the struggle for the expulsion of the Arabs began, the Kings of Spain, wishing to ensure the support that was indispensable to them, made large concessions of land to the nobility and clergy. Some of the estates of the nobles and the religious institutions consequently came to cover immense tracts of land, which in some cases even adopted the title of "State". At the same time the peasants, fearing the exactions of their over-lords, frequently handed over their lands to churches or monasteries, which in turn were to protect the peasants, and subsequently granted them the right to use their former land in return for a small rent.

The lands of the nobles and religious institutions were farmed in various ways according to the conditions of the district. In arid regions in which extensive agriculture and large estates were the rule, the owners generally entrusted the working of their land to their serfs. In the rainy parts, where active systems were more suitable, they divided up their estates and granted parcels of the land to cultivators according to ancient leasehold systems, which came back into favour at this period, in particular

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[1] From the point of view of rainfall Spain may be divided into three zones: the zone of abundant rainfall (more than 600 millimetres), well distributed throughout the year; the arid zone; the zone where the rainfall is considerable but irregularly distributed throughout the year. Following the dividing line adopted by Brunhes, the first zone corresponds approximately to the north and north-east of the country (Galicia, Asturias, the Basque country, Navarre, Aragon, Catalonia, and the northern parts of León and Old Castile). It covers about 180,000 square kilometres, while the other two zones together cover about 315,000 square kilometres. The second zone corresponds roughly to the southern parts of Old Castile and León, New Castile, Estremadura, and the Provinces of the central part of the east coast. The drought is greater in the central and western Provinces than in the eastern Provinces, where irrigation has been carried out since the Roman period. The third zone corresponds roughly to Andalusia and the district of Granada. Here the rainfall is 500 or even 700 millimetres per year, but it falls only in the winter months. It will be seen that conditions differ in each of these zones and have an enormous influence on the distribution of the land.

[2] The present population of Spain is 22 million.

the methods of *foros* and *rabassa morta*, forms of emphyteusis which had come into use in the Middle Ages.

The large landed estates or *latifundia* thus came to extend over the whole of Spain. But this growth of the estates of the nobility and clergy was not favourable to intensive agricultural production, because while extensive systems of cultivation are the main cause of bringing *latifundia* into existence, the concentration of land in its turn leads to extensive systems of cultivation. Other factors, too, contributed to consolidating the *latifundia*. The first of these was the growing shortage of labour : war absorbed the most enterprising of the men, who, once they had become used to military life, could not re-adapt themselves to the normal peasant life. Insecurity also left many blanks by forcing a large number of the inhabitants to enter monasteries or go abroad. The prevalent system of inheritance by primogeniture also tended to perpetuate large fortunes.

In addition to these circumstances there were two other powerful factors leading to the concentration of land in the hands of a small minority : the expulsion of the Moors and the protection granted to sheep farmers. The Moors were almost the only cultivators in the country, and their expulsion, which was completed early in the seventeenth century, was followed by a marked falling-off in agriculture in the east and south-east, where they had been very numerous. Moreover, the Government, wishing to develop the wool industry, protected sheep farmers, who were organised in a powerful association known as the *Mesda*. The flocks had to be moved about from one part of the country to another in search of pasture ; there was free passage throughout the whole country, whether over cultivated or uncultivated land, so that enormous damage was done to land where crops were sown, and the cultivators could obtain no redress from the public authorities and no defence of their rights and interests. The inevitable result was that they gave up their farms.

Finally, the effects of competition from the products of other countries which had entered the civilised world later but were better organised, such as France, England, and the Netherlands, began to be felt. This was the end of a period of productive activity which had had centuries of splendour. Various Governments, driven onwards by necessity, completed the ruin of the whole agricultural activity of the country by imposing heavy taxes on products that were necessary for existence.

Spain became a barren wilderness, and towards the end of the seventeenth century the country was so depopulated that Italian and Flemish soldiers had to be called upon to recruit the army.

Attempts at Rural Settlement

The extreme poverty of the people and the growing depopulation naturally led the Governments to attempt to save agriculture as far as possible by assisting small cultivators. The task was difficult, not only on account of the unfavourable conditions for small-scale farming that have just been mentioned, but also because of the geographical conditions of the country, which place serious obstacles in the way of the adoption of uniform measures. Spain is a high plateau divided into subsidiary plateaux by mountain ranges, so that it forms a series of compartments each with distinct characteristics from the agricultural and commercial points of view ; the climate varies, the nature and distribution of the soil are very different, means of communication are rare and decentralised, and customs differ profoundly. It is therefore not to be wondered at that the work of land settlement, which had to be carried out with very slender means, has not led to any rapid success throughout the centuries.

Under Ferdinand and Isabella (1474-1516) an attempt was made to provide small cultivators with the means of cultivating their land and of making a living. Their reign marks the beginning of the system of *pósitos,* institutions which aimed at providing poor cultivators on suitable terms with grain for family consumption and for seed.

Philip II (1556-1598) took steps to encourage the cultivation of cereals. Every cultivator had to sow at least a third of his holding ; the produce of small farms could not be seized for debt, except by the Treasury or the owners of the land ; the seizure of sheep raised on small farms and necessary for manuring the ground was prohibited ; peasants could not be arrested for debt until after the harvest [1].

The successors of Philip II tried to restrain the great nobles from continuing their life of luxury at Court. Philip III (1598-1621) promised titles of nobility and exemption from military service to any large landowners who would undertake the direct

[1] Cf. G. Renard and G. Weulerste : *Le Travail dans l'Europe moderne*, pp. 41–42. Paris.

cultivation of their estates. When this step proved fruitless, Philip IV (1621-1665) suppressed numerous Court offices so as to force the large landowners to live on their estates.

This step was also a failure and more radical measures were necessary. During the reign of Charles III (1759-1788) a policy was inaugurated which might be described as a policy of settlement and repopulation ; the main object was the creation of villages, and this, as will be seen, was later subjected to deserved criticism. Similar attempts had indeed been made by the predecessors of Charles III.

During the reigns of Philip II and Philip III an effort had been made to replace the Moors in the provinces of Granada and Valencia by Spanish settlers from the centre and north. They were given a patch of arable land, a small vineyard, and a small orchard, and were forbidden to alienate them and bound to cultivate them diligently. During the reign of Philip V, Cardinal Bellenga founded new villages in the former kingdom of Murcia, known as the *pias fondaciones*. Charles III merely gave a new impulse to this policy of repopulation by the formation of villages. His first measure dealt with *colonisación itineraria* : wherever bridges existed or were to be built a new village was to be founded ; each inhabitant was to hold a patch of land by emphyteusis, on moderate terms and with freedom from taxation for six years. An effort was then made to revive depopulated villages : under the Ordinances of 1768, 1769, and 1778 the villages in the provinces of Burgos, Salamanca, and Caceres were successively repopulated [1]. The most important of these operations was the organisation of a large settlement of 44 villages in the Sierra Morena, where the leader, Don Pablo Olavide, introduced a great number of German, Swiss, and Flemish settlers.

After that date there are no important measures for land settlement until the reign of Isabella II (1843-1868). A first Act of 21 November 1855 continued the favourite system of creating villages ; this was the last piece of legislation based on this principle. On this occasion a wave of opposition to the system was encountered, led by Firmin Caballero. The system was ill suited to the special conditions and needs of Spanish

[1] On this subject cf. Constancio Bernaldo de Quiros : "Las nuevas poblaciones de Carlo III", in *Revista de Política social*, 1928, No. 10, pp. 155 *et seq.* Madrid.

agriculture and gave poor results. "As soon", Caballero writes [1], "as it was decided, on account of the sparseness of the population, to take measures for repopulating the vast empty spaces of our provinces, the dominant idea was never to settle them with a rural population in the real sense of the term but to found villages at considerable distances from each other and to facilitate communications across the desert, rather than to improve the conditions of agriculture." The village, however, does not sufficiently meet the requirements of scientific cultivation of the soil. One of the reasons for the unsatisfactory agricultural conditions in Spain was just this fact that the population, where there was any, was grouped in villages far from their holdings, so that the cultivators, in order to go and work on their land, "had to travel one, two or three leagues every day". The situation demanded a very different system of land settlement : it was the real rural population that should have been called upon to settle and repopulate the country, and they should have been installed in the very heart of the country.

Caballero had his way. A new Act was promulgated on 7 July 1866 for the construction of rural dwellings *(caserias)* on farms which as a general rule were not to exceed 200 hectares. The new *caserias* were exempt from all taxes during a period which varied according to their distance from the nearest village [2] ; only the land was to be taxed. In addition the heads of families residing in the new *caserias* as owners, tenant farmers, or managers were exonerated from all compulsory public burdens ; their sons were exempt from military or naval service. Landowners who built *caserias* were granted other facilities relating to the supply of wood, the use of pasture land, and the funds placed at their disposal for the purpose : these facilities were more extensive when groups of *caserias* were to be built.

Shortly afterwards a third Act, of 3 June 1868, codified all the existing texts concerning State action for the encouragement of agriculture and the rural population. Thus the State abandoned direct action in connection with rural settlement and granted material support to private enterprise.

These Acts were comparatively ineffective and far from meeting the requirements of the situation. There was a reaction

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[1] Quoted in "La colonisación y repoblación interior en los principales paises y en España", pp. 58–59.

[2] Fifteen years if this distance was between 2 and 4 kilometres, twenty years if it was between 4 and 7, and twenty-five if it was more than 7 kilometres.

among the persons most interested in the problem of land settlement. If the facilities granted by the State were powerless to induce private enterprise to transform the existing systems and the agricultural situation of the country, then the only way was to return to direct action by the State. Bills were drawn up for this purpose, among them being those of Messrs. Chacon and Luque [1]. The common idea of these Bills was the foundation of agricultural settlements. The State, preferably using public lands, was to break up large estates and distribute the resulting parcels of land to groups of settlers. Each parcel was to be organised as an entirely independent farm with the necessary buildings, stock, and implements. The new settlers were to be granted particularly favourable conditions : they were to be recognised as the owners of their land on payment, over a long period, of a moderate annual rent sufficient to cover interest and redemption charges ; they were forbidden to divide up or alienate their land.

The Government adopted these ideas and in 1906 brought before the Cortes a Bill which was approved and promulgated by way of experiment as the Act of 30 August 1907. The aim was to assist families who had no means of finding employment and no capital for their maintenance, to check emigration, repopulate the country districts, and bring into cultivation waste or inadequately cultivated land. The first measure to be taken for this purpose was to divide up uncultivated State land which seemed suitable for reclamation among poor families accustomed to agricultural work. This was done as an experiment and the administration of the Act was entrusted to a Central Board for Rural Settlement and Repopulation *(Junta central de colonisación y repoblación),* whose duty it was to organise these settlements, that is to say, find State land suitable for cultivation, divide it up and create smallholdings with all that was necessary for good farming (dwelling house, cowsheds, live stock, implements) and to instal families of workers on them. These workers became the owners of the land but were not entitled to divide it or sell it. If the head of the family died the property was to pass to one of his heirs only, who was obliged, if necessary, to compensate the other heirs. The settlers remained free to cultivate their land according to their own needs and capabilities, except that in a few cases the contract obliged them to carry out

[1] Cf. "La colonisación y repoblación interior en los principales paises y en España", pp. 63–68.

certain specified improvements, such as planting small vineyards, copses, etc. Each settlement was to be organised on a co-operative basis. For the purchase of articles necessary for the farming of their land and the maintenance of their families, the settlers were to be members of a co-operative society with unlimited liability, which would provide them with the necessary loans. In order to pay off their debts the settlers had to transfer the whole of their corn crop to the society, which was to sell it. If the sum realised was more than the debt, the difference was handed to the debtor ; if it was less, then settler had to hand over to the co-operative society other produce to make up the amount of his debt.

The Act of 1907 was only applied on a very small scale. Between 1908 and 1926 the Central Board founded eighteen settlements scattered throughout the peninsula, as shown in the following table [1].

SETTLEMENTS FOUNDED IN SPAIN FROM 1908 TO 1926 UNDER THE 1907 ACT

Settlement	Total area	Area under cultivation	Number of parcels		Average area of each parcel
			Settled	Vacant	
	Hectares	Hectares			Hectares
Els Plans	311	20	10	—	2.00
El Puerto	223	120	24	6	4.00
Sierra Sajina	1,362	386	48	—	8.00
Cerillo Verde	268	179	12	—	14.91
Algaida	462	264	196	4	1.32
Carracedo	202	176	45	—	3.91
Caulina	194	172	75	11	2.00
La Algueria	467	212	50	3	4.00
Mongo	639	122	50	2	2.34
Galeón	632	446	70	—	6.37
Coto Salinas	1,370	77	12	—	6.41
La Enebrada	200	120	40	—	3.00
Almonte	662	385	128	14	2.71
Hinojos	407	344	83	6	3.86
Ranas de las Lagunas	547	400	80	—	5.00
Canamero	2,222	1,122	458	7	2.45
Gaudaras de Prado	424	309	84	—	3.67
Umbria de la Sierra	436	309	207	—	1.50
Total	11,028	5,163	1,672	53	

[1] Cf. José GRAU : "La colonisación en 1927", in *El progreso agricolo y pecuario*, 7 April 1928, p. 395.

It will thus be seen that in the course of eighteen years only 1,672 families of workers, cultivating 5,163 hectares out of a total of 11,028 hectares at the disposal of the Central Board, have been installed on the land. Moreover, the area of the parcels that form the new farms is in almost every case less than the minimum necessary for maintaining a peasant's family, especially as the land in question is poor and generally situated in arid regions. The Central Board has expended a total of 13,261,695 pesetas, of which 7,766,587 is not recoverable ; this makes an average of 2,573 pesetas per hectare cultivated (of which 1,066 is recoverable), not counting expenses of management and administration. While this average is relatively low, the reason is that for the last six settlements the communes in which they are situated have not been provided with dwellings and credits for public services. In the first twelve settlements, for which the Board did not introduce these economies, the expenditure was more than 5,000 pesetas per hectare [1].

It must also be noted in this connection that land settlement involves enormous expenditure, much in excess of the commercial value of the new farms that are being made [2]. It is therefore not surprising that the Central Board has expended larger sums on founding its eighteen settlements than the State could make by the sale of the land so settled. The only conclusion that can be drawn is that when the State alone bears the whole cost of founding such settlements it must have enormous sums at its disposal if it wishes to settle large areas under good conditions.

Before dealing with the different methods of land settlement, it will be useful to give a brief account of the distribution of land and the various systems of farming in Spain.

The Distribution of Land and Systems of Farming

It is impossible to give complete statistics of the distribution of land in the various parts of Spain because the new cadastral survey which is at present in progress is far from completion. At the end of 1925 [3] this survey was finished for only 18 million

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[1] Cf. Grau : *loc. cit.*

[2] Pierre Caziot, in *La vérité sur la richesse agricole en France* (Paris, 1928), shows that in France the real value of the land is six or seven times its commercial value.

[3] Cf. Ministerio de Hacienda : *Ensayo de estadísticas catastrales. Memoria resumen del estado de los trabajos de avance en 31 de Diciembre de 1925.* Madrid, 1926.

hectares in the central, western, southern, and eastern provinces, while the total area under cultivation is about 45 million hectares[1]. All that can be done here, therefore, is to give a general sketch of the distribution of land[2].

In the northern and north-eastern provinces within the rainy zone, the land is parcelled out into small farms, sometimes too small, and insufficient to provide complete employment or supply the needs of the cultivator's family, so that the problem of reconsolidating these farms is very urgent[3].

For the rest of the country, using the fragmentary data supplied by the Land Survey Department of the Ministry of Finance, we shall take for each region (eastern, central, western, and southern) the information relating to the surveyed part of a province considered as typical. The Survey Department distinguishes eleven categories of farms, but these are reduced to three main groups : small farms up to 10 hectares, medium farms from 10 to 100 hectares, and large farms over 100 hectares. This classification will serve for the eastern provinces. In the other parts of Spain that have been surveyed, it seems preferable to adopt another classification : small farms up to 20 hectares, medium farms up to 200 hectares, and large farms over 200 hectares. In fact the systems of farming practised require a larger area of land even for small and medium holdings. In the centre and the west, in particular, only part of the farm is sown each year, and the other part, varying from a third to half according to the climate, the nature and distribution of the soil,

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[1] *L'Annuaire international de statistique agricole* of the International Institute of Agriculture (1926-1927) gives the following figures for the year 1922 as being the most complete available :

	Hectares
Cereals	7,742,136
Meadows sown in grass and other crops for fodder	1,121,813
Other crops and fallow land :	
Crops for food	1,376,104
Crops for industrial purposes	96,131
Fallow land	5,694,236
Natural meadows, pasture land, woods	25,281,500
Cultivation of trees and shrubs	3,881,011
Total productive area	45,192,931

[2] Cf. F. DE LOS RIOS : *loc. cit.*

[3] Cf. the proposal on this subject put forward by the Association of Spanish Agriculturists, in *Informe sobre las Reales órdenes del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio y Industria, de 1º de junio de 1926, acerca del régimen de propiedad de la tierra laborable y de los contratos de arriendo, subarriendo y aparceria*, by José Manuel DE BAYO. Madrid, 1926.

and the system of cultivation adopted, lies fallow *(barbecho)* and must be ploughed several times before next year's sowing [1].

In the eastern provinces, where the climate, the system of irrigation [2], and marketing conditions (orange groves and market gardens predominate) favour small-scale farming, the land is parcelled out into a great number of holdings, which are sometimes too small, as is shown by the data for the surveyed part of the Province of Valencia.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE LAND IN THE SURVEYED PART OF THE PROVINCE OF VALENCIA

Size of farms (hectares)	Farms		Owners		Area	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Hectares	Per cent.
Up to 10	225,734	98.16	41,109	91.01	150,390	38.61
10-100	3,668	1.59	3,619	8.01	103,902	26.67
Over 100	572	0.25	440	0.98	135,266	34.72
Total	229,974	100.00	45,168	100.00	389,558	100.00

This table shows that 65.28 per cent. of the surveyed area is taken up by small and medium holdings.

In the centre [3] the land is also very much divided up, as is shown by the figures for the surveyed part of the Province of Avila.

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[1] In this connection cf. Marcellino de Arena y Franco : *Nuevos métodos de cultivo en secano.* Madrid, 1928. The relation between the factors labour and capital on the one hand and land on the other, which determines the maximum limits of these farms, varies considerably in the different agricultural zones of Spain. Thus, in certain central zones, a farm of 25 hectares or even more may be considered small, while in the Alcira zone (province of Valencia), where the systems of cultivation are very active, a farm of 10 hectares is considered of medium size.

[2] Irrigation is practised on many farms by the extraction of underground water, which is less of a hindrance to family cultivation than irrigation by canals would be.

[3] From the point of view of systems of farming the centre consists of the Provinces of Madrid, Segovia, Avila, Toledo, Ciudad Real, Cuanca, and Guadalajara. The Provinces between the centre and the east stand half-way between the two extreme systems of farming and the Provinces between the centre and the north combine the conditions of both zones.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE LAND IN THE SURVEYED PART OF THE PROVINCE OF AVILA

Size of farms (hectares)	Farms		Owners		Area	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Hectares	Per cent.
Up to 20	316,490	99.73	32,408	95.22	183,986	69.96
20-200	782	0.25	1,584	4.63	43,782	16.65
Over 200	62	0.02	48	0.15	35,212	13.39
Total	317,334	100.00	34,040	100.00	262,980	100.00

In the Province of Avila, therefore, the land is even more broken up than in Valencia ; this may be rather surprising when it is remembered that in the former Province the natural and social conditions (low rainfall, no irrigation, less fertile land, smaller density of population) are less favourable to intensive agriculture than the latter. It must not be forgotten, however, that in the Province of Avila, as in all the central Provinces, cattle raising, which is the chief and almost indispensable form of agriculture on the large estates, is scarcely possible ; in these Provinces there is only a very small area of pasture land. Here cereals are the chief crop, and labour is more important than capital, so that the size of the farm tends to be proportional to the working capacity and the needs of a cultivator's family. It follows that active systems of cultivation are not necessarily highly developed systems.

In the west [1] the land is concentrated into huge farms ; pasture land is the rule, with cattle raising (particularly pig breeding). The data for the surveyed part of the Province of Badajoz are typical.

[1] The Provinces of Estremadura, Badajos, and Cacéres. The Province of Salamanca, farther north, combines the conditions of the west and the centre ; the Province of Huelva, farther south, combines the conditions of the west and the south.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE LAND IN THE SURVEYED PART OF THE PROVINCE OF BADAJOS

Size of farms (hectares)	Farms		Owners		Area	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Hectares	Per cent.
Up to 20	216,271	96.21	60,930	91.25	369,876	26.65
20-200	7,413	3.29	5,215	7.83	484,373	34.86
Over 200	1,087	0.50	606	0.92	533,843	38.49
Total	224,771	100.00	66,751	100.00	1,388,092	100.00

In the southern Provinces also land tends to be concentrated into large farms. This is shown by the following data for the surveyed part of the Province of Seville.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE LAND IN THE SURVEYED PART OF THE PROVINCE OF SEVILLE

Size of farms (hectares)	Farms		Owners		Area	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Hectares	Per cent.
Up to 20	87,899	94.09	30,978	87.51	207,908	19.21
20-200	4,459	4.77	3,979	11.26	280,985	25.95
Over 200	1,062	1.14	439	1.23	593,550	54.84
Total	93,420	100.00	35,396	100.00	1,082,443	100.00

The next question to be examined is the methods of farm management adopted on these holdings : i.e. whether they are farmed directly by the owner ; indirectly under a share-farming contract *(aparceria)*[1] ; by tenant farmers, large or small ; or under long-term leases.

[1] Under section 1579 of the Civil Code the share-farming contract is a lease under which the land, labour, and live-stock are shared. The owner provides the land and the share farmer the labour, while the capital is supplied by the two contracting parties in proportions varying according to the district. The produce is shared between them in proportions which also vary and the working costs are generally shared in the same proportion as the produce. Theoretically, the management of the farm is carried out jointly by the owner and the share farmer, but in fact, on account of the absenteeism of the owner, the share farmer is frequently left to manage the farm himself. It should be added that the value of the factors in production (land, labour, and capital) varies considerably in different districts, which explains the differences between the various contracts of this kind.

In the agricultural zones of the north and north-east direct farming is the rule, but tenant farming is also common [1]. The vestiges of ancient forms of emphyteusis *(foros, rabassa morta)* are obviously dying out. For the other agricultural zones the Land Survey Department [2] provides the following data referring only to the surveyed part of seven groups of Provinces ; they may, however, be considered valid for the whole area included in these groups of Provinces.

METHODS OF FARM MANAGEMENT IN THE SURVEYED PART OF SEVEN GROUPS OF PROVINCES

Group of Provinces	Direct farming		Tenant farming		Share farming		Long-term leases	
	Per 100 farms	Per 100 hectares	Per 100 farms	Per 100 hectares	Per 100 farms	Per 100 hectares	Per 100 farms	Per 100 hectares
(1) Badajoz, Cacéres, Cadiz, Cordoba, Jaen, Huelva, Seville	85.55	59.15	10.90	36.30	2.20	3.90	1.35	0.65
(2) Alicante, Castile, Valencia	85.40	80.30	9.41	12.30	4.95	7.31	0.24	0.09
(3) Albacete, Ciudad Real, Toledo	83.70	63.20	11.20	28.50	4.18	7.30	1.10	1.00
(4) Cuenca, Guadalajara, Madrid	81.70	69.85	16.30	28.95	1.88	0.90	0.12	0.30
(5) Avila, Palencia, Salamanca, Segovia, Soria, Valladolid	73.50	59.40	26.20	40.40	0.30	0.19	0.00	0.00
(6) Almeria, Murcia	70.50	58.50	17.90	17.20	11.60	24.30	0.00	0.00
(7) Granada, Malaga	65.50	50.80	31.00	44.63	2.25	3.97	1.25	0.60
General average	80.05	61.62	16.34	32.19	2.99	5.58	0.62	0.61

The table shows that while direct farming by the owner is the commonest method, tenant farming is also widespread. In the central, western, and south-eastern Provinces almost 50 per cent. of the land is worked by tenant farmers. An interesting

[1] Cf. also F. DE LOS RIOS : *loc. cit.*, pp. 838 *et seq.*

[2] *Loc. cit.*

fact from the point of view of land settlement is that in the columns for tenant farming the percentage of area, except in the Provinces of Almeria and Murcia, is higher than that of the number of farms ; this is particularly marked in the western, southern, central, and south-eastern provinces. This shows that tenant farming is more frequent for large than for small farms. The two chief reasons for this are the absenteeism of the large landowners and (especially in the Province of Andalusia) the reluctance of the owners to sell their land, which for them is the source not only of a reasonable income but also of considerable power. When the evolution of systems of cultivation favours the creation of small and medium farms, the large landowners prefer to divide up their property and lease the parcels thus formed.

It will be seen below that land settlement, which always implies the break-up of large and medium estates, is carried out in two ways: by creating small properties and by leasing the parcels of land into which larger farms are divided. Here the problem of the tenancy contract assumes its greatest importance, especially as regards its duration and the ownership of any improvements that the tenant makes on the farm ; we shall return to this question further on.

The preceding table also shows that the share-farming contract has a certain importance in some Provinces, chiefly Almeria and Murcia. This contract, of which *métayage* is only a special form, raises the question of compensation to a share-farmer who leaves his holding.

Methods and Problems of Rural Settlement ; State Action

The Central Board for Rural Settlement and Repopulation was quite well aware of the difficulties in the way of administering the 1907 Act. The chief difficulty, in its opinion [1], lay in the nature of the land at its disposal ; there was very little of it on which, from the technical and economic points of view, land settlement had much chance of success.

The Board therefore demanded the power of extending the application of the Act to land belonging to private persons [2].

[1] Cf. "Memoria elevada al Gobierno de SM. referente a los studios y trabajos realisados desde 1º de Enero de 1917 a 1º de Abril de 1920, etc.", in *Boletín de la Junta Central*, 1920, 3º trimestre, I, pp. 4 *et seq.*

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 8.

In order to solve the problem of rural settlement it considered that it was not sufficient to develop uncultivated land irrespective of its situation and condition; ordinary agricultural workers not tied to the land in any way must be given some powerful attraction to keep them in the rural districts, by improving their condition and thus helping to re-establish the equilibrium that was essential for the general economic development of the country. The attraction proposed was to grant small patches of land to the workers as their own property, on which they could work during their spare time or during periods of forced unemployment; this would help to mitigate the serious consequences of the sudden change from periods of great pressure of work to the slack season. The large and medium landowners would benefit by it because it would stabilise the relation between the supply and demand of labour, and the workers would enjoy greater stability of employment. For this purpose it would be necessary to parcel out private estates. These ideas of the Central Board, however, were not translated into legislation.

In 1925 the Spanish Government adopted new principles with regard to rural settlement. It started from the idea that there were two serious difficulties in installing ordinary workers on new farms: in the first place, there was the very high cost of the operation, because these workers did not own even the minimum capital necessary to meet the primary needs of the farm and of their family, so that the new farms had to be completely equipped and organised and the necessary working capital advanced; in the second place, the new owners would be inexperienced, as was found in the settlements set up under the 1907 Act, which were generally cultivated and managed without any scientific system whatever.

In order to avoid these difficulties and make better use of the means at its disposal, the Government decided rather to assist cultivators who were already installed as tenant farmers or share farmers, as they would presumably already have a small amount of capital and the necessary experience for managing their new property. The application of the 1907 Act, which it will be remembered was merely an experiment, was suspended. In accordance with this new policy some of the former settlements are now being broken up. The settlements of Els Plans and El Puerto, which did not pay, have been dissolved, and others which were in course of organisation (Solanas del

Valle, Sierrezuela, Los Terminos) have been abandoned. All the others are being reorganised and the methods of administration simplified so that they can pay their way and cease to be a burden to the State. To this end the debt of the settlers and the co-operative societies to the State has been consolidated and an annual redemption rate fixed which is consistent with the income from the farms. When this process is complete the settlers will be free owners of their farms, with none of the obligations imposed by the 1907 Act.

A new Royal Decree was promulgated on 7 January 1927 to reorganise the authorities responsible for rural settlement. This Decree entrusted the General Directorate of Agricultural Social Questions, among other duties, with all the work connected with rural settlement and repopulation. The Central Board continues to exist as a consultative body attached to the General Directorate. As many small owners as possible will be brought into existence by dividing up the land on a rational system and granting parcels to cultivators with little or no capital who must farm the land themselves, and by giving tenant farmers facilities for becoming the owners of the land they are working. The General Directorate of Agricultural Social Questions may purchase land for settlement from any private persons who are prepared to sell. This land will be assigned to settlers on a long-term loan, subject to an immediate payment equal to 20 per cent. of the value of the holding.

In pursuance of this Decree the General Directorate, on 22 August 1928 [1], had taken over nineteen estates with a total area of about 20,000 hectares, inhabited by 2,278 settlers' families. Of these nineteen estates two were municipal property and were offered free of charge to the Directorate. The others belonged to private persons and were purchased at a total cost of 9,133,700 pesetas, or less than 500 pesetas per hectare. For the seventeen estates purchased from private persons the settlers have refunded 1,800,450 pesetas, or about 20 per cent. of the total value, as provided in the Decree.

The method of organising a settlement on the lines at present adopted is as follows.

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[1] Cf. Dirección general de l'Acción social y Emigración: *Revista de Acción Social*, 1928, No. 3, p. 287. Cf. also *Revista de Politica Social*, 1928, No. 11, p. 128, and No. 12, p. 108.

Before taking a decision the General Directorate signs the necessary agreements with all the State Departments that can or must collaborate with it: with the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce for the execution of public works (roads, drains, etc.) which are a necessary preliminary to agricultural settlement; with the Ministry of Education for the creation of schools; with the Ministry of the Interior for public health arrangements; and with the Ministry of Justice and Public Worship for religious services.

In choosing land for settlement preference is given to estates that have already been broken up into small family units cultivated by families of settlers. When these estates have been purchased, the various units composing them are where possible re-arranged so as to arrive at a scientific and equitable distribution of the farms, and to improve the means of communication between the main roads, the houses, and the land. Each new unit is assigned to a particular family, which becomes directly responsible for it to the General Directorate of Agricultural Social Questions. Apart from the fraction to be paid on installation, the settler is allowed a maximum period of 25 years to pay off the remainder, or 80 per cent. of the purchase price *plus* interest. He is forbidden to sell or let his property until this debt has been entirely cleared. He must also prove that he has the necessary means for farming his holding; for this purpose he can of course, like all cultivators, apply to the local *pósito* [1].

The present writer visited certain settlements based on the new principles, among others that of Otones de Benjumea, a former estate of 1,640 hectares which before being taken over for settlement was divided into some 5,000 parcels and 45 family units. The General Directorate began by redistributing the land, reducing the number of parcels to about 1,600, and creating 58 family units, or 13 more than before, so as to make room for children of former settlers who had family responsibilities. The area of each new farm was fixed in proportion to the technical and economic capacities of the various families. There are some very small farms intended for workers who are usually employed by someone else and who only need a small patch of land which they cultivate in their spare time or when they are out of work.

[1] The *pósitos*, which originally, in the fifteenth century, were organisations for providing peasants' families with corn for their own maintenance and for seed, have since become credit institutions set up by the State and now working under the supervision of the General Directorate of Agricultural Social Questions.

The payments, spread over a maximum period of 25 years, are — so the writer was told — less than the rent that the settlers used to pay to the former owner. The period of repayment may also be shortened: four settlers have already paid off their debts and ten have paid more than the compulsory instalments. When they have paid off the whole of their debt to the State they will be free to dispose of the land as they like, even with regard to succession. [1]

At Balobar [2], in Aragon, a permanent state of litigation over the recognition of ancient rights had long existed between the owner of a certain estate, the owners of parcels of land lying within the bounds of the estate, and the other inhabitants of the district ; some 400 lawsuits were in progress. The General Directorate, in order to abolish the cause of the dispute, bought the whole estate, which is now organised as a settlement on the same lines as those adopted for the settlement of Otones de Benjumea.

At Guarrate, in Old Castile, 160 share farmers have, as a result of State intervention, become owners of their farms.

At Bollulo del Contado, in the Seville region, a Catholic trade union in 1918 purchased an estate, and divided it up into parcels of one hectare each ; these were distributed among its members, who were expected to grow cereals and vines. These parcels of land were very small, but as they were for industrial workers they were sufficient to provide them with an occupation when unemployed and with an addition to their wages. Encouraged by the success obtained the trade union decided to develop this form of activity. With the assistance of the General Directorate it has since bought another estate of 1,000 hectares, which will be treated in the same way.

All these operations have cost the State 10 million pesetas merely for the purchase of the land. But the General Directorate

[1] According to the Spanish Civil Code (sections 806-822) landed property, in case of succession, is divided into three equal parts : the first must be divided into equal shares between the heirs at law ; the second may be given to any one of the heirs at law ; the third may be given to any person whether a direct heir or not. Usually the inheritance is divided equally between the children and the surviving spouse. In Catalonia, however, and in the north of Aragon, systems of undivided succession survive and are respected by the law. At his death the owner of land may leave his whole property to a single heir *(hereu)*. In Aragon this is the eldest son ; in Catalonia the father can appoint any one of his children, and the others are not entitled to any compensation. Sometimes the father during his lifetime hands over his property to the *hereu* with the condition that he shall provide for his parents' maintenance ; in certain cases the resulting charge is greater than the value of the inheritance.

[2] Cf. *Revista de Acción Social*, 1928, No. 3, p. 250.

does not intend to stop there. Other plans are being studied which will require considerable sums. It is proposed, for example, to organise a large settlement in the Siberia Estremeña district on an area of 40,000 hectares. Drainage operations on a large scale and elaborate organisation have been planned and a railway may even be built. Large funds will be necessary for carrying out this work, which will be of real utility, but the General Directorate will be able to count on the support of the large credit institutions, and in particular the Mortgage Bank.

The Redemption of Long-Term Leases

The principal forms of long-term leases are those under the *foros* and *rabassa morta* systems.

The *foros* constitute a local form of emphyteusis according to which (sections 1628-1655 of the Civil Code) the owner cedes to a cultivator, in exchange for an annual rent, all or part of his estate, either in perpetuity (civil emphyteusis) or for a specified period (ecclesiastical emphyteusis), usually either three generations of cultivators residing on the farm or the lifetime of three kings *plus* twenty-nine years. It is much commoner for the land to be ceded temporarily than in perpetuity.

The *foros,* which date back to the Roman period, were introduced in the tenth century in the northern regions of Spain (Galicia, Asturias, and a large part of the former kingdom of León).[1]

The *rabassa morta* (section 1656 of the Civil Code) is an institution peculiar to the vine-growing districts of Catalonia. A cultivator obtains the right to plant a vineyard on someone else's land by paying an annual rent represented by a part of what he produces. This right lasts for fifty years, or as long as the vineyard is in existence ; when two-thirds of it ceases to be productive the contract comes to an end.

Similar forms of contract are found in Murcia for vine growing and in the Province of Valencia for fruit farming.

Originally the main reason for adopting these methods of leasing land was a combination of two circumstances. Conditions of climate and soil favoured small-scale farming, but political conditions favoured the concentration of landed property

[1] Cf. Instituto de Reformas Sociales : *El problema de los foros en el nordeste de España.* Madrid, 1923.

in large estates. These two contradictory circumstances led to a division between ownership *(jus eminens)* and use *(jus utile)* of land.

The *foros* had a good influence on Spanish agriculture; thanks to this system the land was kept in good condition in the north and east of the country. One result of the system, however, led to violent opposition. The productive or real value of a piece of land is the sum of the values of the land in its natural condition and of the labour and capital put into it in the course of centuries; the factors labour and capital are often more important than the land factor. When the land is not farmed by the owner himself, the cultivator, when the lease has lasted for a long time, finds that he has accumulated, on a holding which does not belong to him, an amount of wealth which, under current law, no longer belongs to him and from which he has had very little advantage. As long as he remains, or knows that he can remain, as tenant he is not anxious, but if he is evicted, or if the owner wishes to consolidate his property, he rebels; he feels that he is giving up wealth that he has created by his toil and that should in consequence belong to him.

From the seventeenth century onwards this state of affairs led to agitation by the *foratarios,* who demanded that leases under the *foros* system, which were almost always temporary, should become perpetual. The owners *(foristas)* opposed this claim and insistently demanded that their ownership should be periodically recognised. Several of them took advantage of their rights to take possession of their land when the leases expired. At the end of the eighteenth century the agitation had grown to such dimensions that the public authorities had to intervene. King Charles III ordered (in 1763 for Galicia and 1768 for Asturias) that the ejection of *foratarios* should be suspended until definite regulations were adopted. This provisional measure remained in force until 1926, when the Decree of 27 June declared that the *foros* and all similar forms of lease were redeemable. If the document containing particulars of the lease and its conditions does not specify the method of redemption, or if the *foristas* and *foratarios* cannot agree on the sum to be paid, the law intervenes and lays down limits within which this sum shall be fixed and rules for the payment of the debt.

This right of redemption means that the cultivators must have considerable sums at their disposal, as otherwise the Act would

remain a dead letter. The Government has therefore supplemented the provisions on the redemption of *foros* by the Decree No. 361 of 17 February 1927, which proposes to create credit funds for *foros* in the Provinces of Galicia, Asturias, and León, in order to provide the *foratarios* with the necessary capital. A fund has been set up at Pontevedra with considerable success and last year another was in course of formation at Corunna. Thus the *foros* problem is on the way to a reasonable and permanent solution.

The problem of the *rabassa morta* seems likely to be solved in a similar way. While viticulture was easy and paid well the cultivators adapted themselves to this kind of lease, which in former centuries was certainly favourable for agriculture, and were satisfied with claiming concessions from time to time which did not modify the substance of their contract. Later, however, difficulties arose.[1] Viticulture became more and more costly, so that the equilibrium between the stipulations of the contract was destroyed. In addition phylloxera developed and spread rapidly in certain parts of Catalonia (the Panadés district) and the vineyards had to be replanted. As vines grafted on American stocks have a short life, the result was that the duration of the contract was perceptibly shortened and its nature very much changed. The owners and the *rabasseros* are agreed in demanding that the *rabassa morta* system should be reformed, but they cannot agree as to the method.[2] The owners wish to transform the *rabassa morta* contract into a tenancy contract, and the cultivators demand that the *rabassa morta* should be declared redeemable as were the *foros*. The Spanish Socialist Party and the General Federation of Workers (two closely connected organisations) include the redemption of the *rabassa morta* in their joint agricultural programme, and the last Congress of the General Federation of Workers, held in September 1928, included among its claims in connection with agriculture the question of the *rabassa morta*, demanding that it should be redeemable and that the ownership of the land should pass to the present *rabasseros*.

The Voluntary Break-up of Estates

Apart from State action, which has always been taken under pressure of circumstances, there is a tendency all over the country to break up estates voluntarily.

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[1] Cf. Instituto de Reformas Sociales: *La Rabassa Morta y su Reforma.* Madrid, 1923.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 16-18.

The factors in this phenomenon are numerous. The first is the increase in the population shown in almost every Province by the censuses of 1900, 1910, and 1920 [1], less marked in the central and northern Provinces and more so in the eastern, western, and southern Provinces. Then there is the development and improvement of means of communication [2] : in 1903 the national and provincial roads had a total length of 48,971 kilometres, while at the end of 1925 the figure was 70,742 kilometres, not including 16,347 kilometres of local roads. The roads are much better kept and communication between the different centres is consequently quicker and more economical. In addition there is the steady development of irrigation ; there are no recent statistics on this subject but it is known that in 1911 more than 1,300,000 hectares were irrigated, out of a total irrigable area of 4 million hectares [3]. The area at present irrigated may be estimated at about 1½ million hectares, situated chiefly in the Provinces of Valencia, Andalusia, Aragon, and Catalonia. The State assists agriculturists in their efforts to utilise rivers for irrigation purposes by granting considerable subsidies under the Acts of 7 July 1911 and 16 May 1925 to the organisations they have founded in irrigable and irrigated districts. A last factor leading to the division of land is the savings that the peasants were able to make during the war as a result of the high prices obtained for agricultural produce, so that they can now purchase their land.

Such are the four factors that have contributed to increasing the relative economic importance of the factors labour and capital in the various systems of cultivation. These systems, which were formerly extensive, are gradually becoming more or less intensive; the large farm, which is not suited to the latter method, naturally tends, slowly but steadily, to be broken up.

This process of division takes two forms : the breaking up of large estates into medium or small properties ; the breaking up of properties into smaller technical units which remain incorporated in the former property and are let by the owners to tenant farmers or assigned to share farmers. The first form is

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[1] Cf. *Censo de la población de España según el empadronamento hecho en la península y islas adjacentes el 31 de diciembro de 1920*, p. LXXXVIII. Madrid, 1922.

[2] Cf. *Anuario estadistico de España*, 12th year, 1925-1926, p. 462. Madrid, 1927.

[3] Cf. INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURE : *International Review of Agricultural Economics*, 1926, No. 3 : "Irrigation in Spain : A new type of institution", by Egidia FERRARI.

commoner in the central and western Provinces, while the second is more in favour in the Provinces of Andalusia, where the owners are more reluctant to sell their land.

An enquiry carried out a few years ago by the Central Board for Rural Settlement and Repopulation on the multiplication of small properties, the report of which was published by the President of the Board, Viscount de Eza [1], gives interesting though not very specific information about the movement of the ownership of land in the districts that are of most interest for our present purpose, as they are precisely those in which the large farm is still predominant: the Castiles, León, Estremadura, and Andalusia.

This report confirms the observation that the sale and breaking up of large estates are everywhere being carried out more or less rapidly, but continuously. The process is more rapid in the Provinces of Soria and Salamanca and in Andalusia, where the conditions are increasingly favourable to it. It is less rapid in Estremadura, where extensive systems are traditional and property can consequently hold out longer against the process of division. In these districts the sale of large properties frequently means merely that they are transferred from the hands of the former owners to the hands of large local tenant farmers.

The break-up of land is more rapid in the neighbourhood of small centres of population. In Andalusia its intensity varies ; it is more frequent in the Provinces of Jaen and Seville and less so in the Provinces of Malaga and Huelva, but the process is definitely going on in all districts.

The enquiry carried out by the Central Board showed certain disadvantages. The contract of sale is not always a direct transaction between the seller and the peasants. Speculators frequently come betwen them and purchase large estates which they proceed to divide up and sell in parcels, making excessive profits for themselves. This not only injures the new owners but is also contrary to the public interest, because peasants who settle on land that has cost too much have no longer the necessary means to cultivate it properly. Another difficulty is the lack of credit. The enquiry showed that usually peasants who buy land have not sufficient capital to buy it outright. They must therefore borrow money for the balance and for working capital. In operations of this kind, however, loans from public funds are either

[1] Viscount DE EZA : *Requisitos indispensables para la difusión de la propiedad privada : su applicación en España.* Madrid, 1924.

non-existent or quite insufficient. Peasants who buy land have therefore in most cases to borrow at extortionate rates.

The enquiry concludes that if the new holdings are to be stable and productive the break-up of the land must not be in any way an artificial process. Local conditions must be favourable, and peasants who wish to own land must have the necessary technical and moral qualifications. In addition, the sale of large estates, even assuming that conditions are favourable, must be surrounded by certain precautions precluding the intervention of speculators and money-lenders.

We may here refer to the work of the Catholic agricultural trade unions [1], which purchase or rent large estates that they divide up in order to provide smallholdings for peasants ; they also undertake to procure the loans needed by these peasants. Since the war operations of this kind have been carried out in the Provinces of the Castiles, Estremadura, Andalusia, and even Valencia. The conditions in which the land is distributed among the members exclude all speculation by the association that has purchased or leased the farms. This association has two functions, one economic (purchasing or renting land and arranging loans for future cultivators), and the other technical (dividing up and distributing the parcels of land). Frequently — as described above for the settlement of Bollulos del Contado — the land, when near manufacturing centres, is assigned to industrial workers. The parcels are then very small, often less than a hectare, but they provide a supplementary occupation and income for the workers who cultivate them.

Problems of Tenant Farming and Share Farming

The breaking up of large estates, which remain the property of a single owner but are distributed in parcels to several tenant farmers or share farmers, raises certain problems relating to the tenancy or share-farming contract. In the case of the tenancy contract it is not only the rent that matters ; other and even more important questions are the length of the contract, and improvements. Generally speaking long leases are the rule in the northern Provinces and short leases in the rest of the country, in many cases for not more than a year [1]. The reason is that in the northern districts the systems of production are more complex

[1] Cf. Confederación nacional católico-agraria : *Compras de tierras en común y parcelaciones.* Madrid, 1927.

[2] Cf. F. de Los Rios : *loc. cit.*

than in most other parts of Spain and a longer period must elapse before the labour put into the land becomes fully productive ; it is therefore in the tenant's interest to remain longer on the land he has rented so as to get the fullest possible benefit from the care he has given it. The same position is also by degrees being reached in other districts, as the march of progress increases the complexity of the systems of production. Short leases are then prejudicial both to the cultivator and to the method of cultivation, because a tenant who knows that he cannot himself profit by all the improvements and all the work required by scientific farming, but showing no return for a considerable period, tends to adopt annual systems of cultivation that end by exhausting the land.

As regards the other question raised by the tenancy contract, the payment of compensation to the out-going tenant, this is still very far from customary. When systems of cultivation are extensive and the same all over a given zone the question is of only secondary importance ; such systems add very little to the value of cultivable land, and in any case a tenant who moves from one farm to another after increasing the fertility of the first will benefit by improvements made by his predecessor, without having any compensation to pay. But when the systems of production in a certain zone are changing rapidly, are becoming more highly developed, and demand a great deal of work that gives no immediate returns and will only partly profit the tenant who carries them out, then the question of compensation becomes acute.

The present writer was able to verify this during a visit to farms in the Guadalquivir basin. The irrigation system recently installed has brought about just this transition stage between systems of extensive and of intensive cultivation, either in industrial forms (medium-sized farms) or in active forms (small farms). In this district tenant farming is in favour, the leases being generally from six to eight years. There is no stipulation concerning improvements made by the farmer ; on this point the contracts merely refer to sections 1573 and 487 of the Civil Code.[1] The right to compensation is admitted even for improve-

[1] Section 1573 : "The lessee shall have the rights accorded to the usufructuary over all useful and voluntary improvements."

Section 487 : "The usufructuary may make any improvements he thinks fit, whether for use or amenity, to property of which he has the usufruct, provided that he does not impair the form or substance of the property in question, but he shall not be entitled to any compensation on this head. He may, however, remove the said improvements if this is possible without damage to the property."

ments made to dwelling-houses. Frequently the holdings formed by the breaking up of a large farm have no dwelling-house, and the farmer builds a hut for himself, which he may destroy or sell to his successor at the expiry of his lease. In the commune of Lora del Rios, the writer noticed a case of a tenant-farmer who has built a house on his farm and has no right to any compensation.

The same questions arise in substance, but with a somewhat different degree of acuteness, for share-farming contracts. The share farmer has also an interest in having a contract sufficiently long to enable him to derive the maximum profit from any improvements he makes, which are of special importance in intensive farming ; for although these are the direct result of his labour and the capital he has put into the farm, he loses all the benefit of them the moment his lease expires. A further question is the sharing of the income. Share-farming contracts differ widely in different districts and according to the condition of the farms.[1] A detailed examination of these contracts would perhaps show that the produce is divided between the owner and the share farmer according to the relative importance in production of the factors land, labour, and capital. Where land is the predominant factor it is obvious that the owner will receive the greater part of the produce, while if labour is the most important the share farmer is likely to receive a better share. In many Provinces, particularly in the south, the rapid changes in recent years in agricultural conditions have led to transformations in the structure and working of farms which have modified the previous relation between the factors land and labour. Some modification of the share-farming contracts would therefore seem necessary. But when the conditions of cultivation undergo perceptible changes, the terms of contracts for the hire of land — including those for share farming — are always slower in yielding to the pressure of new circumstances. The result is that these contracts either fall into disuse because they are no longer of interest to at least one of the parties, or else the parties try to get their form modified. In Spain, as far as the writer could ascertain, the first alternative is the more usual in the case of share-farming contracts. When the share farmers find that they cannot become the owners of the land they are cultivating, they

[1] Cf. the monograph on share farming in Spain, prepared by the Spanish Institute for Social Reform, in *International Review of Agricultural Economics*, Jan. 1923.

tend to become or are forced to become tenant farmers. They generally resist this tendency when they have or believe they have ancient rights to sustain ; they then remain on their land as share farmers, for any change in the contract would involve the forfeiture of their rights, real or imaginary.

Agriculturists (both owners and workers), technical experts, and the legislative authorities have for some considerable time been studying the possibility of modifying tenancy and share-farming contracts, so as to bring them into line with the development of the general conditions of agriculture. Proposals on this subject have been put forward from various sides. That of the Association of Spanish Agriculturists, on the one hand, and that of the Socialist Party and the General Federation of Workers, on the other, may be mentioned as being the most important.

The Association of Agriculturists, in reply to a questionnaire sent out by the Ministry of Labour in the course of an enquiry on methods of ownership of cultivated land, and on tenancy, subtenancy, and share-farming contracts [1], considered it desirable with regard to tenant farming :

a) that all contracts should be in writing or should be concluded before the municipal magistrate, all the expenses being borne by the owner ;

(b) that on account of the very variable conditions of farms no legal minimum period should be fixed for the contract, but that in any case the tenant should have the right to ask for a minimum of ten years ;

(c) that if the land becomes sterile, the tenant should be entitled to have his contract rescinded ;

d) that improvements made by agreement between the tenant and the owner should entitle the tenant to compensation ;

(e) that the rent should be periodically revised in the case of long leases ;

(f) that subletting should not be absolutely prohibited, but only subletting by a subtenant.

With reference to the share-farming contract, the Association of Agriculturists considers that this should be regarded as a tenancy contract and that section 1579 of the Civil Code, which

[1] Cf. note (3), page 838.

regards it as a contract of partnership, should be suppressed. They maintain that "it is of no advantage to the share farmer and is on the other hand a source of anxiety and a danger for the owner of the land, who sees in the resultant obligations a definite restriction on his liberty, apart from the fact that it is an inexhaustible source of litigation." The Association is opposed to the adoption of any definite regulations for this form of contract.

The workers' organisations (the Socialist Party and the General Federation of Workers) demand [1] :

(a) that the duration of the tenancy contract should not be less than ten years ; that change of ownership should not be a reason for rescinding the contract ; that no tenant farmer should be ejected who has observed the terms of the contract ;

(b) that in case of dispute between owner and tenant, the former should be forbidden to prevent the latter from cultivating his land during the dispute, no matter how long it may last ;

(c) that the out-going tenant should be entitled to compensation for any improvements he has made ;

(d) that the rent should not exceed the taxable income of the farm ;

(e) that the rent should be reduced in case of losses on production for which the tenant is not responsible ;

(f) that land taxes should be paid by the owner ;

(g) that all contracts should be declared null and void in which the tenant renounces his right to compensation for improvements or to reduction of rent for losses on production, or agrees to pay the land tax.

The question of tenancy and share-farming contracts is still under discussion, but it is unanimously recognised that some change in the present position is necessary.

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To sum up, we find in Spain a very active ferment at work which is gradually bringing about a change in the agricultural

[1] Cf. *Programa agraria del Partido socialista obrero y del Unión general de Trabajadores de España.* Madrid, 1928. Cf. also *Actes del Cuarto Congreso Ordinario de la Federación regional Levantina de Agricultores y similares de 11 y 12 de Agosto de 1928.* Alcira, 1928.

organisation of the country. Labour and capital are turning more and more towards the land and this new tendency is the determining factor in the complex phenomenon of rural settlement. The land is steadily being broken up and the peasant class is continually growing in numbers and in power as it frees itself from all dependence on the former large landowners, speculators, and money-lenders. Favourable local conditions, a ready flow of credit to assist the peasants, ability of the peasants to organise strongly and effectively for the defence of their interests — these are the factors on whose presence or absence depends the greater or less rapidity of this process of disintegration of the large landed estates.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

The Regulation of Child Employment in Non-industrial Occupations

The chief non-industrial occupations employing children (apart from agriculture and work at sea) are commercial work in shops and offices, various occupations carried on in the streets, employment in restaurants and the like, and work connected with public entertainments. No international conventions govern these occupations, and the national laws regulating them are less developed than those which relate to industry. It is proposed to make a general examination here of the extent to which these aspects of employment are regulated by the laws of the States Members of the International Labour Organisation ; this examination will cover both children and young persons, the term " children " being understood to mean young workers under 14 years of age and " young persons " those from 14 to 18 years of age.

Scope of Legislation

Employment in non-industrial occupations may be regulated by all-embracing laws covering industry, commerce, and other work, or by laws which apply to special occupations, such as commerce, shops, public entertainments and so on, or by school attendance laws, or by child welfare laws. The law usually provides a framework and leaves the details to be filled in by by-laws which it empowers local authorities to make. There are various reasons for this. The principal is that non-industrial work is usually small-scale employment, often done by isolated children and sometimes by children working for their parents. The conditions of such employment may vary between one place and another and local authorities are best fitted to deal with it within limits set for their guidance.

A characteristic of non-industrial work is that many forms of it can be performed in addition to other work, as when school children are employed to deliver goods for shops or to run errands ; this makes control difficult. Nor is it enough to set a minimum age limit ; seeing that non-industrial work can be, and often is, done by school children, the limitation of hours, and the times of day at which employment is allowed, are important, otherwise the combined school and working day might be unduly long. Moreover, provision must be made to ensure continuity of school attendance.

Nearly all States have laws to regulate non-industrial child employment. The aspects most frequently regulated are age of admission, hours and times of employment, conditions to safeguard health

and education, and restrictions relating to night work and to particular occupations. There is little uniformity, however, in the extent, or even the manner, of regulation.

Typical examples of comprehensive child labour laws are found in Argentina and Brazil. In Argentina the Employment of Women and Young Persons Act of 30 September 1924 applies to " any kind of work performed by one person on account of another ". It includes industry and agriculture and (of the employments considered here) commerce, street trading, public entertainments, employment in places where intoxicants are sold, and dangerous feats of strength and acrobatic performances. In Brazil the Minors' Code of 1927 is almost equally comprehensive, but it does not specifically apply to commerce, though the Code might be interpreted to cover certain commercial occupations. It has, however, provisions for public performances, street trading, dangerous feats, occupations prejudicial to education or morals, and employment in studios for the production of cinematograph films, the last being an occupation found only in the more recent laws.

Regulation by laws applicable to particular occupations is principally confined to the British Empire. Thus in England and Wales the Education Act of 1921 covers street trading, public performances, and dangerous acrobatic feats, and it applies for the most part to children of school age ; the work of young persons in shops comes under the Shops Acts, while the Children Act of 1908 relates to bars and public houses. The position is nearly the same in Scotland and the Irish Free State. In Australia, Canada, and the Union of South Africa child welfare measures deal with public entertainments and street trading, while the employment of young persons in shops is regulated by Shops Acts or Ordinances, or by special provisions of the Acts relating to factories.

Regarding the scope of these laws, work in shops and offices is regulated almost everywhere, at least as far as daily or weekly hours are concerned ; but such work is full-time employment and is thus confined to children who have left school. Of the employments which might be performed by school children, work in public performances is also regulated in a comparatively large number of countries and some specifically mention acrobatic feats and dangerous performances. Street trading regulations are found mostly in the British Empire ; elsewhere it is only specially mentioned in the laws of Argentina, Belgium, Brazil, France, Greece, and Guatemala. Employment in inns, cafés, bars and places where intoxicants are sold is forbidden wholly or partially for children, or children and young persons, by the laws of a large number of countries.

Age Limits

There appear to be only two States having an absolute minimum age limit and no provisions for exceptions. These States are Argentina and Brazil. The limit in Great Britain is also 12 years, but the employment of children under this age by their parents is not entirely pre-

cluded. Departures from the 12-year limit relate principally to domestic work and agriculture, to employment of a child by its parents, and to public performances. Thus in Austria the Child Labour Act of 19 December 1918, applying to " all work for which remuneration is paid, or which is carried out regularly ", while forbidding the employment of children under 12 years of age, reduces this age to 10 years for agricultural work, and exempts employment exclusively for instruction or in " isolated services " (occasional work), or of a person's own children on light domestic work. The provisions of the Czechoslovak Child Labour Act of 17 July 1919 are almost the same as those of the Austrian Act. In Germany the Employment of Children Act of 30 March 1903 forbids the employment of children under 12 years old in commercial and trading concerns, and for the delivery of goods or errand work, but it reduces the age to 10 years for children employed by their parents. Such examples might be continued ; they would show that the minimum age at which a child may begin to be employed is usually 12 years, and that a reduction of a year, or sometimes two years, for certain occupations, or for children employed by their parents, is not uncommon.

As might be expected, age limits vary with occupation. They are highest for employment in places where intoxicants are sold. In three States (Brazil, Guatemala, and Latvia) the minimum age for such work is 21 years ; in five States (Bulgaria, France, Italy, Panama, and Quebec) it is 18 years ; in three (Belgium, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia) it is 16 years. Elsewhere it is 14 years or less. The modern tendency is to fix a high limit for children or young persons so employed, or to forbid the employment altogether.

Employment connected with a public performance may mean the work of a performer on the stage, or off the stage to sell programmes or other articles. Most laws appear to cover both, though not all definitely say so.

There are two slightly different ways of regulating work in public performances, the first characteristic of the various British and Dominion laws, and the second found on the continent of Europe and in South America. In the British system the minimum age is usually 10 or 12 years and the only exception allowed relates to performances connected with a charity. From 10 to 12 years up to 16 or 18 years the principle of forbidding the employment of children in public performances is maintained, but provision is made for exemption under licence, granted on conditions relating to education and kind treatment and, in practice, apparently not very difficult to obtain. In the United Kingdom, for example, the Education Act of 1921 forbids the employment in a public entertainment of a child under 12 years of age, except for an occasional charitable entertainment. Over this age the local education authority may grant a licence (subject to restrictions prescribed by the Board of Education) to enable a child to take part in an entertainment or series of entertainments in licensed premises if satisfied that the child is fit for the purpose, and that due provision has been made for its health and kind treatment. This licence does not excuse the child from the provisions of the Act

relating to school attendance, nor does it permit employment between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m. for boys and girls from 12 to 14 years of age, and between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m. for girls under 16 years of age except in premises licensed for public entertainments.

In the continental system there is a minimum age limit of 13, 14, or 15 years for employment in public performances, but exceptions are allowed for particular pieces if it can be shown that the interests of art or science require a child to take part in the performance. There appears to be no minimum age limit, except in France, where it is 9 years, and this constitutes the principal difference between the two. This system is found in a number of continental countries and in Brazil, Chile, and Peru. The practice in France may be taken as an example of this method of regulating the work of child performers ; it is governed by three Circulars of the Minister of Education and Fine Arts dated 10 March 1913, 26 June 1924, and 26 February 1925, which require the following particulars to be observed :

(1) Permission may in no case be given in respect of a child under nine years old ;

(2) A birth certificate must be produced and permission to employ the child will not be given should any danger to its health or morals be anticipated ;

(3) The child may attend the theatre only in the company of its father or mother or some person responsible to the parents ;

(4) A special dressing room must be set apart for children to which no persons other than parents, persons having parental authority, and makers-up may be admitted ;

(5) No child may be employed for more than 15 representations monthly, and its name may not appear on play-bills, programmes, or other announcements ;

(6) When the child's wages exceed 20 francs a day any excess must be deposited in its name in a savings bank ;

(7) Should a child not be in possession of a certificate of primary studies (such a certificate is required of all employed children over 12 and under 13 years old excused from school attendance), the manager of the theatrical enterprise must procure a certificate from a school, authorised by the Minister to grant it, that the child is attending this school.

Age limits are sometimes raised for children engaged in dangerous performances ; a few laws allow exceptions in the case of employment by a parent, or to permit a child to be trained as an acrobat or for some other dangerous performance. Thus in the United Kingdom the Education Act of 1921 provides that no child under 16 years of age may be trained as an acrobat, contortionist, or circus performer, or for any exhibition or performance which in its nature is dangerous. But a petty sessional court may grant a licence upon such conditions as may seem fit to the court for any child over 12 years, or for a young person under 16 years, to be so trained if satisfied of the fitness

of the child, and if it can be shown that provision has been made to secure its kind treatment. In France the Labour Code forbids the employment of children under 16 years old in circuses or in the performance of dangerous acrobatic feats, or as contortionists ; in the case of a child working with its father or mother the age is 12 years. In Peru the age, 14 years, for persons employed as actors is raised to 16 years for acrobatic and similar feats, but parents exercising the profession of acrobat, gymnast, and the like may employ their children, and others may employ children within certain degrees of relationship, who have reached 14 years in any performance connected with these professions. A very similar provision is found in the Brazilian Minors' Code. In Argentina and in Italy, on the other hand, the age limits are raised for the employment of children in dangerous performances and no exceptions are allowed.

The employment of children in studios for the preparation of films for the cinematograph is restricted as such only in Brazil, Germany, and Italy, and by a small number of United States laws. Where not specially regulated the laws for public performances or for school attendance or child labour apply to it. [1] Nowhere is any absolute limit set, but there are provisions to protect health, education, and morals. A representative example of this type of law is found in Brazil ; it is also one of the most recent. The provisions are contained in the 1927 Minors' Code and they require that no young persons under 18 years old shall be employed in studios for the preparation of cinematograph films unless the following conditions be observed :

(1) Written permission from the parents or guardians of the young person must be obtained ;

(2) Special permission must be obtained from the competent authorities designated by the law ;

(3) The preparation and execution of scenes must not take place at advanced hours of the night, or in unhealthy or dangerous places ;

(4) The work to be done, both in duration and in character, must be compatible with the physical condition of the young person for whom permission has been asked, and the nature of the work must be such that it will not be prejudicial to morals ;

(5) Permission to employ infants under three years old will only be given when participation is necessary in the interests of art or science, and only after special measures have been taken to protect the health and safety of the infant.

Provisions resembling these are found in Germany, but in that country there is more insistence upon school attendance.

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[1] This matter was dealt with fully in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 2, Feb. 1927, pp. 245-256. The only noteworthy change which has taken place since is the Brazilian law referred to here. Enquiries made recently, and particularly one made in the United States in 1928, seem to indicate that the number of children so employed is not very large, and that the need for regulation is more insistent in certain other unregulated forms of child employment.

School Attendance

Compulsory school attendance constitutes an important restriction upon the premature employment of children. Unfortunately, however, the utility of school attendance laws depends upon the provision of adequate school accommodation, the extent to which exemptions are allowed, and the length of the school year — all uncertain and variable factors.

As regards exemptions, some laws permit a child who has attained a specified degree of proficiency to leave school a year, or even two years, before the completion of the normal age limit. In France, for example, where the law provides for attendance until completion of the thirteenth year, a child who has attained 12 years, who has completed its course of primary education, and has obtained a certificate to that effect, may enter any employment, industrial or non-industrial. More often exemptions will only be given for specified employments. Thus in Argentina, where school attendance is compulsory from 6 to 14 years, there is a provision to excuse a child who has reached 12 years if it passes an examination in a prescribed course of studies. But such an exemption will not enable it to enter industry, commerce, or domestic service, for which occupations the age may in no circumstances be less than 14 years. Exemption for poverty is allowed by some laws. Examples of this provision may be found in Argentina, some Australian States and Canadian Provinces, Brazil, and a few other places. Their effect is usually to allow a reduction of two years in the minimum age. Exemptions of this kind tend to disappear from modern legislation.

There appears to be no law in any country to forbid the employment of children who are required to attend school. The age at which the employment of school children is allowed is 12 years in most States, and it is subject to restrictions upon the number of hours' work which may be performed on school days and on non-school days, and on the time of day at which this work may be performed. Night work is always forbidden for school children except when permission has been given for them to be employed in a public performance. The following are representative examples of British and continental procedure in the matter of employed school children. In England and Wales the Education Act of 1921 forbids the employment of a child under 12 years old except in so far as the employment of children by their parents may be allowed by local by-laws. Children between 12 and 14 years old may not be employed on Sunday for more than two hours, or on any other day before 6 a.m. or after 8 p.m., nor before the close of school unless local by-laws permit it for occupations specified by them, and on such safeguarding conditions as they may prescribe. Employment before 9 a.m. on a school day must be limited to one hour, and a child so employed may not be employed for more than one hour in the afternoon. In Czechoslovakia the Child Labour Act forbids the employment on school days of school children under 14 years for more than two hours, and employment before morning school and during the two hours before afternoon school is prohibited.

Such children may not work on holidays for more than four hours, except in agricultural and domestic work, where the limit is six hours. Employment is forbidden on all Sundays and religious festivals unless the work is of such a nature that it cannot be postponed, and in this case the communal authorities must be notified. The Austrian Child Labour Act has similar provisions. In Germany the Act concerning the employment of children provides that children over 12 years old who are obliged to attend school may not be employed for more than three hours daily, or four hours during school holidays. In Norway not more than two hours may be worked before school and the school and working day taken together may not exceed seven hours.

Conditions attaching to Employment.

The employments to which conditions are usually attached are street trading and work in public entertainments. As regards the first, a common condition is that young street traders shall possess a licence from some competent authority. The object of this licence is to show that the holder is within the prescribed age limit, that there are no objections from the point of view of school attendance, that the consent of his parents or guardians has been obtained, and, in a few laws, that there is some economic or other valid reason why the child should take up an occupation which it is the policy of many laws to discourage. The child may also be required to wear a badge while at work, and there may be provisions to prevent the illicit transfer of the badge and for its return when the licence has expired. The wearing of a badge is recognised as a valuable aid to enforcement, never an easy matter where street trading is concerned. Another useful method of controlling this employment is a requirement that the licence shall be renewed at intervals of six months or a year.

As regards public entertainments, all laws regulating these require that children or young persons under a given age shall be licensed. The licence is not granted until the conditions prescribed by law for the protection of the health, welfare, and morals of children so employed have been fulfilled. These conditions were considered above in connection with age limits; they relate to such matters as age, education, hours, and moral safeguards.

Restrictions upon Hours

Except as regards the work of school children out of school hours, and of young persons employed in shops and offices, there is little regulation of hours in the occupations considered here. To deal first with school children, school or labour laws usually limit the number of working hours on school days for children between 12 and 14 years old. Thus the Northern Ireland Education Act of 1923 forbids the employment of children of 12 to 14 years on school days and Sundays for more than three hours daily, and for more than five hours daily on other days; in Czechoslovakia the Child Labour Act provides that children under 14 years may not work more than two hours on school days nor more than four hours on other days which

are not Sundays or religious festivals observed as days of rest ; in Austria and Germany the Child Labour Acts have very similar provisions regarding children, and other examples might be given of hours restrictions relating to the work of school children. There are, in addition, a few laws which have hours restrictions applicable to children under 14 years who have been specially exempted from school attendance ; thus in Peru, children from 12 to 14 years of age with exemption permits may not work more than 6 hours daily and 33 weekly, and in Manitoba there is an 8-hour day and 48-hour week provision for exempted children under 14 years old.

The hours of young persons under 18 who have left school are occasionally limited by provisions applying to every kind of work. This is the case in Argentina, where the Employment of Women and Young Persons Act of 1924 forbids the employment in any occupation of persons under 18 for more than 6 hours daily or 36 weekly. In Peru, children from 14 to 18 years old may not be employed for more than 8 hours daily and 45 weekly, a restriction which is applied to "all work". But these comprehensive restrictions applying to age as distinct from occupation are rare.

Where there are 8-hour-day laws, or similar measures, for industry and commerce, these restrict the hours of young persons in common with other workers. Such laws are found in Belgium, France, Poland, and a number of other countries. A few have special provisions for young persons under 18 ; they usually take the form of prescribing a shorter week for such workers and forbidding overtime. Provisions of this kind are not unusual in recent 8-hour laws.

The laws of the British Empire stand apart. These regulate the work of young persons in industry by Acts relating to factories and mines, and outside industry by Shops Acts. To some extent the employment of young persons is regulated by Child Welfare Acts or employment provisions of Education Acts ; but such measures are intended chiefly for children who are at school, at least so far as their labour clauses are concerned. Throughout the Empire the Shops Acts prescribe maximum hours for young persons, and these hours are frequently very long. In the United Kingdom and Irish Free State, for example, there is a maximum of 74 hours weekly and no daily limit ; in most Australian States a 9-hour day is allowed and a 52-hour week ; in three Canadian Provinces there is a daily limit of 10 hours or more and a weekly limit of 60 hours or more. The non-industrial work of young persons over school age, in so far as it does not come within the Acts relating to shops, is but little restricted in the matter of hours, with the result that in practice very long hours are sometimes worked in unregulated occupations.[1]

[1] *Report of the Departmental Committee on the Hours and Conditions of Employment of Van Boys and Warehouse Boys*, London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1913 ; *Report to Members of the House of Commons on the Urgent Need of Reform in the Conditions and Present System of Engagement of Casual Boy Labour at the Docks*, prepared by the Joint Parliamentary Advisory Committee, 1923 ; and the *Annual Reports* of the Committee on Wage-Earning Children, having its headquarters in London. This matter has long engaged the attention of the British Government and a Bill to deal with it is before Parliament.

Night Work

The employment of children and young persons at night is unlikely to occur to any extent outside public entertainments and in a few unregulated occupations. This is because the laws relating to commerce or to shops and offices usually forbid night work, and most street trading regulations have a similar prohibition. School attendance provisions, whether contained in education or labour laws, always forbid school children to be employed at night.

In public entertainments night employment is usually forbidden in principle for children or young persons under a certain age, and provision is made for exemptions. Such exemptions, as has been seen, may be for special pieces in the interests of art or science, or for an entertainment or series of entertainments in licensed premises upon safeguarding conditions.

Most British and Dominion laws forbid street trading at night by children or young persons, or give local authorities the power to regulate it. It is customarily forbidden after 8 p.m. Elsewhere the position as regards young street traders is less clearly defined; in Greece, however, the employment of children under 16 years old in street trades between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. is forbidden, but the provision is considerably weakened by excluding boys over 12 years old employed to sell newspapers, one of the forms of street trading in which experience shows that abuses are most likely to occur.

Apart from these two special occupations of street trading and public entertainments certain laws have all-round prohibitions, subject to any exceptions which may be allowed for public entertainments. The most advanced legislation of this kind is found in Guatemala, where the Labour Act of 1926 provides that no child or young person under 18 years old may be employed after 7 p.m. except in so far as employment in public entertainments is permitted. In Argentina young persons under 18 years may not be employed after 8 p.m., and there is no exception for public entertainments. In Austria and the United Kingdom children under 14 years may not be employed in any sort of work after 8 p.m., but there is an exception applicable to public entertainments. There is a similar provision in Germany and Czechoslovakia; the age, however, is completion of the twelfth year.

Enforcement

The important question of enforcement can only be considered briefly, as more than an outline could not be given without a study of local regulations. In countries where child welfare is in the hands of some State Department or Organisation (as is the case in certain of the Australian States and Canadian Provinces, in Argentina, Brazil, Colombia and some other South American States, and in Italy), these bodies enforce the law, employing special officials for the purpose. Thus in Brazil the Minors' Code is enforced in the Federal District by the Minors' Judge, on whom considerable powers are conferred by the Code. The Minors' Judge is assisted by a Child

Welfare and Protection Council which has power to visit places where young persons under 18 years old are employed and generally to supervise such employment.

When the protection of children and young persons is not in the hands of some specially appointed body the law may be enforced by factory inspectors, or shop inspectors, or school boards, or the police. Opinions differ as to who is best fitted to enforce the laws governing the occupations considered here, but it is agreed that where children of school age are concerned the school authorities should be given adequate powers to see that the law is observed. As regards young persons above school age, employment in shops would seem to fall naturally within the province of shop inspectors where they exist. It is in occupations carried on in the streets and public places, and in work connected with public entertainments, that real difficulties arise, particularly in big cities. In some localities school authorities are given powers, in others the police ; and approved voluntary organisations may also be called upon. But the matter bristles with difficulties and perhaps the best solution is to be found in the strict application of the licensing laws and the gradual withdrawal of children and young persons from employments carried on in the streets.

Conditions of Agricultural Workers in Spain[1]

Classification of Farms and Workers

In Spain the combinations of crops grown differ considerably in different regions ; this involves variation in the types of farm. In the central Provinces, where the most usual combination is cereals, pulse crops, and unproductive fallow, the structure of agricultural undertakings is fairly simple ; it is more complicated in the western Provinces, where the utilisation of fallow, stubble, and acorns for stock raising (especially pigs) is added to the combination peculiar to farms in the central region. In the southern Provinces yet another combination is found : the cultivation of cereals and pulse crops, without fallow, is combined with the cultivation of industrial plants (beet, tobacco, and cotton). Thus there are three types of farm, with different classes of workers.

The type of farm characteristic of the central region may first be considered. As cereals are the principal crop, ploughing and sowing are the most important operations, especially as the methods of dry-

[1] Based on information collected personally by a member of the Agricultural Service of the International Labour Office in the course of a journey through Spain.

farming adopted make it necessary to till the land several times. This is done by means of such implements as ploughs and harrows, each as a rule drawn by a pair of mules. The workers employed on the farm are of two kinds : permanent workers, engaged by the year, and daily workers. The permanent staff is principally employed on ploughing and sowing, and also on tending stock. There is one permanent worker *(mulero)* to each pair of mules. On farms of considerable size where there are several pairs of mules the *muleros* form a special group under a foreman *(apelador)*, whose sole duty is to supervise their work, and an assistant foreman *(manijero)*, who takes part in the work. There is also an extra worker ; for as the pairs of mules usually work one behind the other in the same field, the temporary absence of one worker would hold up the work of the entire group if there were no one to take his place. The large farms also employ labourers for odd jobs.

Daily workers are engaged for the whole period of certain seasonal tasks : weeding, reaping and threshing cereal crops, carting produce, vintage, etc.

On farms in the western Provinces, in addition to the groups of workers described above, there are also shepherds and swineherds *(porqueros)*, whose duties are the supervision and care of breeding stock.

In the southern Provinces *muleros* and cattlemen are employed for ploughing, sowing, and carting. The more up-to-date farms also employ a mechanic, for draught animals are gradually being replaced by tractors. All these persons work under the orders of the *apelador* and the *manijero*. A further group consists of the workers employed to tend and watch breeding stock. For rushes of seasonal work daily workers are engaged as wanted.

As regards the number of workers in relation to the area of the farm, it is usual in the central Provinces to employ one permanent worker to every 25 hectares of land, which is the area that can be worked with one pair of mules. In the west and south, according to the amount of work to be done, one *mulero* is generally employed to every 15 or 20 hectares of land which is tilled but not irrigated. On irrigated farms the workers are of course much more numerous. The number employed in tending breeding-stock depends on the number of oxen, swine, or sheep ; there are never more than two or three families for this work.

The number of daily workers varies considerably according to the intensity of the farming operations and the season. The ratio of permanent to daily workers is roughly one to ten during periods of great pressure. In all parts of the country there is frequently a shortage of daily workers in the summer. In the western Provinces the gap is filled by Portuguese workers ; these are not regarded with a kindly eye by the Spanish workers, who accuse them of accepting too low wages. In the winter, on the other hand, unemployment is rife. The unemployed workers migrate either to other parts of Spain, where they usually try to find work in the mines, or to foreign countries, either for the period of unemployment, or even permanently.

The Village System

It often happens, and is indeed characteristic of agricultural conditions in Spain, that the worker lives at a considerable distance from his work. It is true that permanent workers as a rule live at the farm, in accommodation provided for them, and if necessary for their family, by the employer. But if there is a village not very far off, only a part of the workers—those who are most necessary—live at the farm. The remainder live in the village, in houses either owned or rented by them ; in fixing their wages the fact that their employer does not provide living accommodation is taken into account.

Daily workers ordinarily live in the villages, which are sometimes several hours' walk from the farm where the workers are employed. If they have a small plot of ground where they can grow fodder, they can keep an ass or mule, which they then use to ride to and from the farm. Journey time is not counted as part of the working day, which is at most eight hours' actual work, except during periods of very great pressure. For workers coming from a distance who cannot go home every day, dormitories with more or less comfortable beds are provided.

The standard of accommodation provided on farms for permanent workers differs very considerably. At one end of the scale is the reasonably clean and comfortable cottage, stone or brick built (especially in districts where the winter is severe). At the other, there is the simple and primitive thatched hut *(chozo)*, built on a circular ground plan, consisting of one room only. Bunks are fixed all round the inside wall, except for a space where there are one or two pieces of furniture in which to keep clothes and household goods. Water, unfortunately, is very often scarce ; in some localities it is collected in cisterns for household consumption, and ponds and watercourses are used for watering the stock.

Taken as a whole, the buildings belonging to a large farm look rather like a village. They are usually built in the form of a hollow rectangle, with one or two inner courtyards. The quarters occupied by the employer and his manager are at the entrance ; next come the staff quarters, and, at the end or sides, the stables and outbuildings. Sometimes, if the farm is a long way from a village, there is even a chapel ; here a visiting priest holds service on Sunday, which is a day of rest made pleasanter by music and dancing.

Wages, Food, and Methods of Engagement

Wages vary according to the region, the tasks assigned, and the season. They are paid in one of the three following ways :

(a) The whole of the wage may be paid in cash, at a rate varying from 4 to 8 pesetas a day, with free living accommodation.

(b) The wage may be paid in cash with a supplement in kind ; the latter usually takes the form of *gaspacho*, a dish very common,

even in well-to-do families, in the centre, west, and south. This is a kind of cold soup, which is considered refreshing and stimulating. It is made with vinegar, oil, water, and a little salt ; these are whipped together, and all sorts of vegetables (peppers, onions, cucumber, etc.) and bread are added.

(c) The wage may be paid partly in cash and partly in kind ; the part paid in kind consists of full board (three meals daily). The first and most important meal is served at midday ; it consists of bread, wine, and *cocido*, a kind of stew made with sausage or meat (usually pork in working-class families), chick-peas or lentils, tomatoes, peppers, potatoes, etc. In the afternoon *gaspacho* is served ; the third meal, in the evening, consists of bacon or cheese, bread, and wine. The amount of food supplied to the workers varies according to local custom, the employer, and the workers' bargaining power in regard to their conditions. In general, agricultural workers and the peasant classes as a whole are very abstemious.

Meal times vary with the season and the district. Frequently dinner is at 1 or 2 p.m. ; *gaspacho* is served towards evening, and supper is very late so as to allow for the return of persons whose work is at a considerable distance. These hours are in accordance with the general customs of the country. The value of board and lodging is estimated at 2 or 3 pesetas a day ; the cash portion of the wage varies from 2 to 5 pesetas a day according to the locality and the kind of work.

In addition to their wage, permanent workers may have a small plot of land, which they cultivate as they like and the whole produce of which belongs to them.

These conditions apply to the person actually engaged. In the case of a family, the members of it not engaged as permanent workers have no special rights, except that of living at the farm if the employer lodges his permanent staff ; but they generally find employment on the farm as daily workers.

The wages paid to daily workers vary very much, both with the kind of work and especially with the season. The limits are fixed by the law of supply and demand. During periods of great pressure of work, the demand for labour is considerable and the workers take advantage of it to increase their demands. Conversely, when agricultural work is nearly at a standstill, the workers offer their services for a very modest wage.

The engagement of agricultural workers is generally effected in the village market-place. Workers out of employment gather there early in the morning or in the evening, and the *apeladores* from the various farms come and choose from among them the workers they need. Wages are fixed from day to day, according to the supply of and demand for labour. However, in certain regions, e.g. in the east, the engagement of agricultural workers is based on collective agreements between employers' and workers' organisations.

STATISTICS

Family Budget Enquiries in Greece

In October 1923, under the auspices of Dr. Pratsicas, Chief of the Research and Statistics Service of the National Bank of Greece, an enquiry into family budgets was inaugurated in Athens.[1] Until this date, no reliable information which could be used as a basis for cost-of-living index numbers was available, although in 1922 an attempt at computing such index numbers was made on the basis of a theoretical budget. For the purpose of the enquiry, about 150 forms were distributed in which information was asked as to the size of the family, occupation of the head, income of different members of the family, and expenditure on the principal items. Particulars were asked for in respect of 1913-1914 and 1923-1924. Only 17 returns were received, most of them neither very accurate nor very precise. The following table summarises the information so obtained on the size and income (in drachmae) of these 17 families in 1913-1924.

DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY INCOME GROUPS IN 1913-1914

Income group	Number of families	Number of persons	Annual income			
			Head of family	Other members of family	Other sources	Total
Dr.			Dr.	Dr.	Dr.	Dr.
2,000–2,500	4	27	1,560	314	338	2,212
2,501–3,000	8	30	1,980	220	591	2,791
Above 3,000	5	16	2,820	—	1,310	4,130
All families	17	73	2,128	178	743	3,049

The expenditure of these same families was distributed as follows in 1913-1914 and 1923-1924 :

Item	1913-1914 (per cent.)	1923-1924 (per cent.)
Food	54	57
Clothing	11	17
Rent	16	6
Miscellaneous	19	20
	100	100

[1] This summary is based on a study (in typescript) communicated to the International Labour Office by Dr. PRATSICAS, entitled : *Enquêtes sur les budgets familiaux et notes sur les nombres-indices des prix et du coût de la vie à Athènes de 1923 à 1928.* Athens, 1928. 51 pp.

The experience gained from this small preliminary enquiry was of great value in the preparation for a new and more extended enquiry for the period 1926-1927. It was decided to limit the enquiry to working-class families on a daily or monthly wage. The number of families invited to complete the enquiry forms was increased to 350. Of the forms distributed 86 were returned, but as 31 were not utilisable for one reason or another, 55 were actually tabulated. This number is not considered by the author of the study on the enquiries as unreasonable in comparison with the numbers utilised in other countries.

The following table summarises the results as regards the incomes of these 55 families in 1926-1927 :

DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY INCOME GROUPS IN 1926-1927

Income group	Number of families	Number of persons	Monthly income				Average per family
			Head of family	Other members	Other sources	Total	
Dr.			Dr.	Dr.	Dr.	Dr.	Dr.
1,500-3,500	38	227	94,996	2,710	2,700	100,406	2,642
3,501-5,000	14	80	52,712	4,300	2,100	59,112	4,222
5,001-6,500	1	6	3,500	2,200	415	6,115	6,115
Above 8,000	2	14	13,350	4,600	3,800	21,750	10,875
All families	55	327	164,558	13,810	9,015	187,583	3,407

The average monthly income of these 55 families was thus 14.5 times that of the 17 families in 1913-1914, while the increase in the cost of living is estimated at 19.5 times.

The study by Dr. Pratsicas proceeds to analyse in a series of detailed tables the expenditure of the various families. The average consumption of each of the principal articles of food is given, and the nutritive value of the food budgets is calculated and compared with an estimated theoretical standard of nutrition, as follows :

Item	Actual monthly consumption per family	Estimated physiological requirements
Albumen (kg.)	17.5	19.4
Fat (kg.)	10.5	8.5
Carbohydrates (kg.)	75.3	85.6
Calories	488,643	558,000

As regards rent, the study gives an analysis of the complicated legislation affecting the level of rents in Athens, and the conclusion is reached that the average rise in rents and taxation on rents as permitted by legislative enactments is 12.58 times the pre-war rent.

The average rent given in the 1926-1927 enquiry was 560 drachmae and in the 1922-1923 enquiry was 42 drachmae for the pre-war period, so that the real rise is about 13 times.

As regards clothing, the extraordinary difficulties of measuring the consumption of this group are explained. An attempt, however, is made to compile units of consumption on the basis of the following scale: male adult = 1.00; female adult = 0.52; young person = 0.21. This reduces the average family of 6 persons to 2.7 units, and on this basis the consumption of the principal articles is given. Heating and lighting give little difficulty, nor miscellaneous articles such as soap, cigarettes, etc.

The analysis of the five groups of expenditure thus enables "units of consumption" to be calculated for an average family of six persons; these units form the weights which when applied to the prices give the cost-of-living index numbers. Tables are given in the study showing the retail price changes of the different articles in the food, fuel, lighting, clothing, and miscellaneous groups, and after a discussion of the methods of calculation and of the interpretation of index numbers, the author concludes with a table of cost-of-living index numbers, which is reproduced below.

INDEX NUMBERS OF THE COST OF LIVING IN ATHENS IN 1928

(Base: 1914 = 100)

Date	All items	Food only
1928: January	1986	2127
February	1973	2098
March	1966	2087
April	1991	2119
May	2008	2151
June	2007	2147
July	1947	2051
August	1911	1990
September	1892	1957
October	1945	2040
November	1947	2042

As the Greek currency was stabilised in May 1928, the changes in prices are now fairly small.

Employment and Unemployment

Table I giving unemployment statistics shows for certain countries the percentage of workers unemployed. In some cases these percentages are based on data compiled by the trade unions in respect of their members, while in other cases they refer to the workers covered by unemployment insurance laws. For some countries for which no such data are available information is given as to the numbers registered at various dates at the employment exchanges as unemployed or the number of unemployed workers who have received assistance. Table II gives index numbers of employment for certain countries.

In the *Review* for July 1924 and later months an outline was given of the methods by which the statistics given in the tables are compiled, together with particulars of the original sources in which they are published.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany					Australia		Belgium			
	Trade unionists				Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies			
	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed			Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.				Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1928 April	295,135	6.9	180,712	4.2	729,329	*	*	4,922	0.8	17,769	2.8
May	270,103	6.3	215,759	5.0	629,470	*	*	4,062	0.7	22,574	3.6
June	268,443	6.2	255,090	5.9	610,687	46,656	11.2	3,709	0.6	19,115	3.0
July	273,696	6.3	283,562	6.5	564,064	*	*	4,471	0.7	23,768	3.8
Aug.	288,375	6.5	312,051	7.1	574,475	*	*	3,397	0.5	23,888	3.8
Sept.	293,691	6.6	303,466	6.9	577,093	47,745	11.4	3,464	0.6	20,561	3.3
Oct.	325,293	7.3	303,737	6.8	670,997	*	*	3,957	0.6	22,458	3.5
Nov.	427,516	9.5	339,461	7.6	1,029,658	*	*	3,563	0.6	13,915	2.2
Dec.	748,760	16.7	336,270	7.5	1,702,342	42,637	9.9	11,988	1.9	28,218	4.5
1929 Jan.	874,050	19.4	391,970	8.7	1,721,594	*	*	22,657	3.5	24,945	3.9
Feb.	1,015,843	22.3	407,128	8.9	1,518,710	*	*	28,772	4.6	42,197	6.8
March	765,224	16.9	364,820	8.0	1,456,334	—	—	5,808[1]	0,9[1]	21,436[1]	3,4[1]
April	—	—	—	—	—	*	*	—	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	4,548,946				*	428,970		626,632			

[1] Provisional figures.

The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Austria	Canada		Denmark		Estonia	United States	Finland
	Compulsory insurance	Trade unionists		Trade union unemployment funds		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists	Number of unemployed registered
	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.		Percentage unemployed	
1928 April	154,817	9,573	5.2	42,243[1]	16.6	2,162	16	1,482
May	130,393	6,657	3.7	39,117[1]	14.0	1,470	13	86[illegible]
June	118,737	5,800	3.2	37,503[1]	13.5	883	11	811
July	115,211	4,500[1]	2.5	37,037[1]	13.6	486	12	762
Aug.	113,851	4,274	2.4	35,600[1]	13.0	467	9	857
Sept.	112,595	4,068	2.2	33,100[1]	12.2	706	10	946
Oct.	112,557	5,705	3.1	40,100[1]	14.5	1,561	9	1,600
Nov.	155,235	7,742	4.2	47,700[1]	17.7	4,369	10	3,045
Dec.	237,661	12,553	6.6	67,850[1]	28.4	7,770	13	2,868
1929 Jan.	245,984	11,850	6.3	74,900[1]	27.6	6,329	15	4,731
Feb.	264,148	12,834	6.8	81,600[1]	30.0	4,624	15	4,155
March	225,034	—	—	63,400[1]	23.3	4,165	14	3,196
April	167,116	—	—	37,280[1]	13.7	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	188,888		272,119		*	270,000	*

Date (end of month)	France	Great Britain and Northern Ireland				Hungary			Irish Free State
	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Compulsory insurance				Trade unionists			Compulsory insurance
		Wholly unemployed		Temporary stoppages		Christian	Social-Democratic		
		Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent
1928 April	7,273	898,019	7.6	222,729	2.0	1,016	14,027	9.3	*	*
May	3,746	893,304	7.6	274,705	2.3	955	13,275	8.7	26,449	1[illegible]
June	1,659	917,726	7.8	355,634	3.0	1,001	12,800	8.5	*	*
July	1,095	958,567	8.1	418,464	3.6	875	12,242	8.1	*	*
Aug.	1,010	979,926	8.3	395,293	3.4	832	12,523	8.3	22,843	[illegible]
Sept.	562	1,019,179	8.6	335,832	2.9	818	12,134	8.0	*	*
Oct.	453	1,059,429	8.9	344,482	2.9	1,003	12,212	8.1	*	*
Nov.	503	1,105,974	9.3	347,243	2.9	841	12,313	8.0	27,724	[illegible]
Dec.	895	1,083,207	9.1	250,404	2.1	825	14,362	9.6	*	*
1929 Jan.	1,604	1,169,633	9.8	296,104	2.5	691	16,421	10.9	*	*
Feb.	3,527	1,161,184	9.8	292,680	2.4	825	18,165	12.1	31,111	11[illegible]
March	1,078	1,003,575	8.4	200,210	1.7	838	—	—	*	*
April	706	945,820	8.0	235,555	1.9	—	—	—	*	*
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	11,881,500				*	150,100[1]		280,905	

[1] Approximate figures.

The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Italy		Latvia	Norway			New Zealand		Netherlands	
	Number of unemployed registered		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists (10 unions)		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies	
	Wholly unemployed	Partially unemployed		Number unemployed	Per cent.		Number unemployed	Per cent	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1928 April	356,795	45,833	2,950	7,654	28.8	24,719	*	*	15,620	5.0
May	306,629	45,569	1,295	—	18.0	19,871	6,478	11.5	14,083	4.4
June	247,021	30,296	1,223	4,925	14.4	16,747	*	*	14,302	4.4
July	234,210	27,590	928	4,674	13.6	15,365	*	*	17,100	5.3
Aug.	248,100	24,319	965	4,834	13.9	15,817	6,298	11.3	16,670	5.2
Sept.	268,883	28,746	1,914	5,413	15.5	17,180	*	*	15,697	4.7
Oct.	282,379	25,639	5,179	5,677	16.1	20,464	*	*	15,542	4.8
Nov.	321,123	24,814	9,184	6,171	17.4	23,033	5,523	10.0	20,296	6.2
Dec.	363,551	27,278	14,030	7,810	22.1	24,223	*	*	38,116	11.5
1929 Jan.	461,889	16,655	12,856	7,915	22.2	24,393	*	*	61,784	18.9
Feb.	489,347	15,854	10,909	7,591	21.0	23,821	5,216	9.2	69,154[1]	20.9[1]
March	293,277	15,846	8,855	—	—	24,584	*	*	20,320[1]	6.0[1]
April	—	—	—	—	—	22,228	*	*	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*		*	35,591		*	56,534		334,466[1]	

Date (end of month)	Poland	Russia	Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom	Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia	
	Number unemployed registered	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number unemployed registered	Trade unionists		Unemployment funds		Trade union insurance funds	
				Number unemployed	Per cent.	Per cent. unemployed		Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Per cent.
						Wholly	Partially		
1928 April	153,016	1,598,700	9,123	32,218	11.7	*	*	16,683	1.4
May	135,542	1,571,060	6,820	22,978	8.2	*	*	16,556	1.4
June	116,247	1,471,320	5,696	21,257	7.6	1.2	0.8	13,468	1.2
July	100,487	1,339,810	4,696	20,238	7.4	*	*	13,627	1.2
Aug.	90,976	1,344,000	4,106	19,826	7.1	*	*	15,588	1.4
Sept.	82,642	1,364,600	3,587	22,159	7.6	1.1	1.0	16,304	1.5
Oct.	79,478	1,475,000	3,744	27,008	9.1	*	*	13,228	1.1
Nov.	97,414	1,561,000	4,485	32,220	10.8	*	*	12,532	1.1
Dec.	128,144	—	5,233	49,633	17.2	4.0	1.4	19,698	1.7
1929 Jan.	161,189	1,665,300	—	43,424	14.9	*	*	31,357	2.7
Feb.	178,273	—	—	44,254	14.6	*	*	36,147	3.1
March	176,539	1,735,500	11,953	44,250	14.2	1.6	1.7	—	—
April	147,813[2]	—	—	—	—	*	*	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	*	*	311,065		262,538		1,158,700	

[1] Provisional figures.
[2] Middle of the month.
The sign * signifies " no figures published ".
The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany[1]	Canada[1]	Estonia[1]	United States	Switzerland
	Index number of employment				
	Membership of sickness funds on 1 Jan. 1925 = 100	Number employed in 1926 = 100	Number employed on 1 Jan. 1927 = 100	Average number employed in 1926 = 100	Number employed in March 1925 = 100
1928 April	109.6	106.8	111.7	93.3	*
May	111.8	113.8	119.1	93.0	*
June	112.3	117.7	118.7	93.1	110.1
July	112.4	119.3	120.1	92.2	*
Aug.	112.4	119.1	116.9	93.6	*
Sept.	112.1	118.8	112.1	95.0	112
Oct.	111.3	118.9	111.8	95.9	*
Nov.	108.6	116.7	110.3	95.4	*
Dec.	102.0	109.1	107.5	95.9	111
1929 Jan.	98.7	110.5	112.1	95.2	*
Feb.	96.2	111.4	114.2	97.4	*
March	—	110.4	115.2	98.6	—
April	—	—	—	99.1	*
Number of persons on which latest figures are based	*	944,681	39,131	4,815,598	220,819

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month.
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

Index Numbers of the Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Tables I to V give for a number of countries index numbers of the cost of living, food, clothing, heating and lighting, and rent. Notes on the sources and methods of compilation of the statistics were given in the *Review* for July 1924 and later months.

TABLE I. COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria	Belgium [1]	Bulgaria	Canada [2]	Chile [3]	Denmark	Danzig	Egypt	Estonia [4]
Towns and localities	9	72	6	Vienna	59	12	60	Santiago	100	Danzig	Cairo	Tallinn
1928 April	133	151	*	107	204	2841	99	102	176	139	159	113
May	133	151	*	107	202	2857	98	104	*	140	149	113
June	132	151	147	109	204	2818	98	105	*	140	149	112
July	131	153	*	108	205	2861	98	106	176	141	151	116
Aug.	131	154	*	108	206	2742	99	107	*	141	153	114
Sept.	131	152	146	109	209	2757	99	111	*	140	153	112
Oct.	131	152	*	109	212	2796	100	111	172	140	155	112
Nov.	131	152	*	109	217	2826	100	117	*	140	155	113
Dec.	131	153	—	109	216	2816	100	110	*	142	154	113
1929 Jan.	131	153	*	109	216	2820	100	103	173	142	152	117
Feb.	131	154	*	111	217	—	99	—	*	143	153	119
March	132	157	—	110	216	—	100	—	*	144	—	112
April	—	154	*	109	217	—	—	—	174	—	—	—

Country	United States [5]	Finland	France [5]	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [4]	India	Dutch Indies [4]	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania [4]
Towns and localities	32	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay		105	Milan	Riga	84
1928 April	*	1212	*	164	153	114	147	146	170	531	106	134
May	*	1207	519	165	153	117	146	145	*	526	107	136
June	170	1219	*	165	152	118	147	144	*	530	109	136
July	*	1236	*	165	148	118	146	145	173	526	113	139
Aug.	*	1258	519	165	146	120	145	147	*	522	120	144
Sept.	*	1249	*	166	145	121	146	150	*	526	113	137
Oct.	*	1254	*	167	148	119	146	151	176	528	114	136
Nov.	*	1262	531	168	148	118	147	153	*	534	114	136
Dec.	171	1260	*	167	146	118	148	154	*	541	115	137
1929 Jan.	*	1242	*	165	148	118	148	156	177	541	120	136
Feb.	*	1232	547	166	150	121	149	156	*	544	121	137
March	*	1229	*	162	—	121	149	—	*	561	124	141
April	*	1219	*	161	—	—	148	—	173	—	—	—

Country	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands [6]	Peru [4]	Poland	Rumania	Russia [4]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Luxemburg	31	4	Amsterdam	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country	229	49	33	Prague
1928 April	794	193	*	*	176	121	4085	206	*	160	734
May	794	193	162	*	176	121	4090	206	*	160	736
June	805	193	*	170	177	122	4099	210	173	161	734
July	813	193	*	*	175	123	4086	210	*	161	746
Aug.	821	192	161	*	175	122	4100	207	*	161	754
Sept.	831	185	*	169	175	122	4135	201[7]	172	161	749
Oct.	836	184	*	*	169	123	4206	204	*	162	726
Nov.	844	184	162	*	168	125	4230	209	*	162	721
Dec.	845	183	*	168	168	125	4237	209	170	162	725
1929 Jan.	848	181	*	*	167	124	4240	210	*	161	745[8]
Feb.	859	182	161	*	170	128	4249	214	*	161	748
March	852	180	*	169	173	125	4251	218	171	161	754
April	859	180	*	*	—	125	—	228	*	159	—

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1926 = 100. [3] New series; base: March 1928 = 100. [4] 1913 = 100.
[5] Quarterly averages. [6] 1911-1913 = 100. [7] New series. [8] Corrected series taking into account the weighted average of the rents of new and of old houses.
The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country		South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria	Belgium [1]	Bulgaria	Canada [2]	Denmark	Egypt	Spain	Estonia [3]
Towns and localities		9	72	30	Vienna	59	12	60	100	Cairo	Madrid	Tallinn
1928	April	119	151	154	117	202	2851	98	152	140	174	121
	May	120	151	154	117	199	2869	96	*	139	171	121
	June	118	152	154	122	203	2830	96	*	140	172	120
	July	116	154	152	119	204	2878	97	153	144	173	127
	Aug.	115	156	150	120	206	2747	99	*	143	174	124
	Sept.	115	153	150	120	208	2760	99	*	148	178	119
	Oct.	115	152	150	120	213	2794	101	146	154	179	120
	Nov.	115	152	150	120	219	2822	101	*	151	181	121
	Dec.	115	153	152	119	218	2809	101	*	150	187	120
1929	Jan.	115	153	—	120	217	2817	100	147	146	184	128
	Feb.	115	156	—	123	217	—	99	*	—	183	132
	March	117	159	—	121	215	—	100	*	—	184	136
	April	—	154	—	119	213	—	—	150	—	—	—

Country		United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [3]	India	Dutch Indies [4]	Irish Free State	Italy
Towns and localities		51	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay		105	Milan
1928	April	149	1119	532	154	144	126	144	146	162	516
	May	150	1113	546	156	145	130	142	145	*	513
	June	149	1126	557	157	144	132	143	145	*	520
	July	149	1155	547	156	138	131	142	146	166	513
	Aug.	151	1191	540	156	134	133	141	147	*	506
	Sept.	154	1174	544	157	132	133	142	148	*	513
	Oct.	153	1183	566	159	138	129	142	149	171	515
	Nov.	154	1194	585	160	137	127	144	151	*	526
	Dec.	152	1186	596	159	133	126	145	152	*	539
1929	Jan.	—	1156	599	156	133	126	145	155	173	539
	Feb.	—	1141	602	157	135	130	146	154	*	541
	March	—	1135	607	150	—	132	146	—	*	570
	April	—	1118	615	149	—	—	145	—	164	—

Country		Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Peru	Poland	Russia	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities		Riga	31	4	Lima	Warsaw	229	49	33	Prague
1928	April	139	171	144	152	142	210	153	156	844
	May	139	172	146	154	142	211	154	156	847
	June	144	171	147	155	143	218	156	156	843
	July	147	173	147	152	144	218	156	157	858
	Aug.	151	170	147	151	143	212	156	156	871
	Sept.	155	164	147	151	142	208	154	157	861
	Oct.	155	163	149	142	144	213	152	158	821
	Nov.	161	161	150	142	148	219	152	158	813
	Dec.	163	161	152	142	147	220	151	158	820
1929	Jan.	163	158	149	142	146	222	149	157	812
	Feb.	170	157	148	147	153	—	149	157	821
	March	—	158	146	153	146	—	151	156	830
	April	—	156	147	—	144	—	148	154	—

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1926 = 100. [3] 1913 = 100.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Country	Germany	Austria	Belgium[1]	Canada[2]	Denmark	Spain	Estonia[3]	United States[3]	Finland	France[4]	Great Britain	Hungary[3]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Norway	New Zealand	Poland	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	72	Vienna	59	60	100	Madrid	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	31	4	Warsaw	49	33	Prague
TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1928 April	170	183	241	97	198	*	150	*	1043	*	220	135	155	200	591	*	*	169	*	166	1020
May	170	183	240	97	*	*	150	*	1044	581	220	134	156	*	566	*	*	169	*	166	1020
June	170	183	242	97	*	*	150	163	1048	*	220	134	158	*	559	169	146	169	185	166	1033
July	171	183	244	97	198	*	150	*	1048	*	220	134	159	206	561	*	*	169	*	166	1040
Aug.	171	183	243	98	*	*	150	*	1049	591	220	134	157	*	561	*	*	169	*	166	1040
Sept.	171	183	246	98	*	*	150	*	1052	*	220	134	156	*	561	168	145	169	186	166	1032
Oct.	171	183	247	98	198	*	150	*	1052	*	220	134	156	206	555	*	*	169	*	169	1026
Nov.	172	183	248	98	*	*	150	*	1054	591	220	134	158	*	558	*	*	169	*	169	1023
Dec.	173	183	250	98	*	*	150	162	1055	*	220	134	160	*	555	166	144	169	186	169	1023
1929 Jan.	173	183	251	98	198	*	150	*	1055	*	220	134	160	206	555	*	*	169	*	169	1022
Feb.	173	183	252	—	*	*	150	*	1055	594	220	134	160	*	555	*	*	169	*	169	1018
March	173	183	253	—	*	*	150	*	1055	*	220	134	159	*	555	—	—	169	185	169	1018
April	173	183	254	—	196	*	—	*	1056	*	215-220	—	—	210	—	*	*	169	*	167	—
TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1928 April	145	99	168	97	190	171	81	*	1436	*	168	119	145	172	407	*	*	116	166	138	819
May	144	99	168	97	*	171	81	*	1434	504	170	119	158	*	407	*	179	120	165	137	819
June	144	99	170	96	*	171	81	177	1436	*	165	119	158	*	407	162	*	124	164	136	819
July	144	99	168	96	185	171	81	*	1423	*	165	122	158	168	407	*	*	121	164	136	819
Aug.	145	99	169	96	*	171	84	*	1421	510	165	121	151	*	407	*	179	121	163	135	819
Sept.	147	99	170	96	*	173	84	*	1429	*	170	127	144	*	407	169	*	123	162	135	842
Oct.	149	99	172	97	183	173	85	*	1426	*	170	129	144	173	407	*	*	130	160	136	842
Nov.	151	99	174	97	*	173	84	*	1441	515	170	129	143	*	408	*	178	135	160	136	842
Dec.	151	100	175	97	*	173	85	181	1452	*	170	126	143	*	408	—	*	137	159	136	842
1929 Jan.	151	100	175	97	185	174	85	*	1450	*	170-175	131	148	176	408	*	*	139	160	135	842
Feb.	152	103	175	—	*	173	85	*	1446	535	170-175	134	143	*	425	*	175	139	162	135	842
March	153	105	184	—	*	174	93	*	1456	*	170-175	134	143	*	425	—	*	140	165	135	842
April	151	102	187	—	190	—	—	*	1463	*	170	—	143	178	—	*	*	141	162	134	—
TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																					
1928 April	126	14	209	101	193	*	52	*	1411	*	151	75	172	127	400	*	*	56	*	174	261
May	126	14	209	101	*	*	52	*	1411	*	151	80	172	*	400	*	189	56	*	177	261
June	126	14	209	101	*	*	52	158	1430	275	151	80	172	*	400	179	*	56	199	177	261
July	126	14	210	101	193	*	52	*	1430	*	151	80	172	128	401	*	*	58	*	177	278
Aug.	126	14	210	101	*	*	52	*	1430	*	151	85	172	*	401	*	190	58	*	177	278
Sept.	126	14	210	101	*	*	52	*	1430	300	151	85	172	*	401	179	*	58	199	177	278
Oct.	126	14	211	101	193	*	52	*	1430	*	150	85	172	127	408	*	*	58	*	177	278
Nov.	126	15	212	101	*	*	52	*	1430	*	152	86	172	*	408	*	190	58	*	177	278
Dec.	126	15	211	101	*	*	52	156	1430	300	152	86	172	*	408	179	*	58	199	177	278
1929 Jan.	126	15	222	101	193	*	52	*	1430	*	152	86	172	127	408	*	*	58	*	177	405[5]
Feb.	126	15	223	—	*	*	52	*	1430	*	152	86	172	*	408	*	190	58	*	177	405
March	126	15	223	—	*	*	52	*	1430	300	152	86	172	*	408	—	*	58	200	177	405
April	126	15	223	—	196	*	—	*	1430	*	153	—	172	128	—	*	*	58	*	177	—

[1] 1921 = 100. [2] 1926 = 100. [3] 1913 = 100. [4] Quarterly averages. [5] Measures have been taken to ascertain the average rents in new houses.
The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".]

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Recent Labour Legislation

The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French, and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used [1]. Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1928

INTERNATIONAL

Germany-Lithuania.

Handels- und Schiffahrtsvertrag zwischen dem Deutschen Reiche und der Republik Litauen. Vom 30. Oktober 1928.

Prekybos ir laivininkystès sutartis Tarp Vokietijos Valstybès ir Lietuvos Respublikos. 1928 metu spaliu ménesio 30 diena.

(R. G. Bl., II, 1929, No. 10, p. 104.)

Latvia-Turkey.

Tirdzniecibas un kugniecibas konvenciju starp Latviju un Tureiju. 1928. g. 28. maija.

Convention de Commerce et de Navigation entre la Lettonie et la Turquie. Du 28 mai 1928.

(Lik., 1929, 1. burtnica, No. 1, p. 1.)

ARGENTINA

Decreto sobre medidas de profilaxis en los establecimientos industriales y otros. 19 de Noviembre de 1928. (Crónica mensual del Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, Noviembre de 1928, No. 129, p. 2545.)

[Decree respecting prophylactic measures in industrial and other establishments. Dated 19 November 1928.]

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[1] *List of abbreviations :* A. N. = Amtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für Soziale Verwaltung ; B. G. Bl. = Bundesgesetzblatt ; B. I. R. S. = Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales ; B. M. T. = Bulletin du ministère du Travail ; B. O. M. T. = Boletín Oficial del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria ; C. S. R. = Commonwealth Statutory Rules ; D. R. A. = Deutscher Reichsanzeiger ; Drj. Vest. = Drjaven Vestnik ; E. K. N. = Ergatiké kai Koinoniké Nomothesia (pararténa B') (published by the Ministry of National Economy) ; Eph. Kyb. = Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Teuchos proton) ; G. U. = Gazzetta Ufficiale ; I. N. K. T. = Izvestia Narodnogo Komissariata Trooda ; J. O. = Journal Officiel ; Lik. = Likumu un Minustru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums ; R. Arb. Bl. = Reichsarbeitsblatt ; R. d. T. = Revue du Travail ; R. G. Bl. = Reichsgesetzblatt ; S. R. & O. = Statutory Rules and Orders ; Sb. z. a n. = Sbirka zákonu a narizeni (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslovak Republic) ; L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office.

Cordoba.

Decreto reglamentario [de la Ley de descanso dominical]. 25 de Agosto de 1928. (Crónica mensual del Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, 1928, No. 129, p. 2550.)

[Decree issuing regulations under the Sunday Rest Act. Dated 25 August 1928.]

AUSTRALIA

Papua.

Regulations made under the Native Plantations Ordinance, 1925 (No. 16 of 1925). No. 1 of 1929. Dated 20 December 1928. (Government Gazette, 1929, No. 1, p. 1.)

CANADA

Revised regulations under the Old-Age Pensions Act (Revised Statutes of Canada, 1927, Chapter 156). Dated 21 December 1928. (Labour Gazette, 1929, No. 2, p. 164.)

Saskatchewan.

Order in Council under section 5 of the Child Welfare Act, 1927, and section 4 of the Old-Age Pension Act, 1928, to order that the Old-Age Pension Act, 1928, shall be administered by the Bureau of Child Protection under the Minister from time to time in charge of an Act respecting the Welfare of Children, being Chapter 60 of the Statutes of Saskatchewan, 1927. Dated 3 April 1928. (Saskatchewan Gazette, 1928, No. 15, p. 1.)

Proclamation to declare that the Old-Age Pension Act, 1928, being Chapter 75 of the Statutes of Saskatchewan, 1928, shall come into force on the first day of May 1928. Dated 27 April 1928. (Saskatchewan Gazette, 1928, No. 18, p. 2.)

Order in Council to approve the Regulations governing the payment of old-age pensions. Dated 27 April 1928. (Saskatchewan Gazette, 1928, No. 18, p. 3.)

Order in Council to approve the Agreement under the Old-Age Pension Act. Dated 27 April 1928. (Saskatchewan Gazette, 1928, No. 18, p. 4.)

Proclamation to declare that sections 10 and 11 of the Department of Railways, Labour and Industries Act, 1928, being Chapter 11 of the Statutes of Saskatchewan 1928, shall come into force on the eighth day of September 1928. Dated 8 September 1928. (Saskatchewan Gazette, 1928, No. 37, p. 2.)

CUBA

Decreto Num. 596: Reglamentación de la Ley sobre indemnizaciones por accidentes del Trabajo. (Crónica mensual del Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, Octubre de 1928, No. 128, p. 2522.)

[Decree No. 596, to issue regulations under the Act (of 12 June 1916) respecting compensation for industrial accidents.]

DANZIG (FREE CITY OF)

*Arbeitsgerichtsgesetz. Vom 28. Dezember 1928. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1929, No. 2, p. 5.)

Aufzugsverordnung. Polizeiverordnung über die Einrichtung und den Betrieb von Aufzügen. Vom 24. November 1928. (Sonder-Ausgabe zum Staatsanzeiger für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1929, No. 5, p. 15.)

Grundsätze für die Anstellung der Inhaber des Beamtenscheines. Vom 22. Dezember 1928. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1929, No. 1, p. 1.)

DENMARK

Bekendtgørelse om Amvendelse af visse Bestemmelser i Lov om Tilsyn med Skibe af 29. Marts 1920 med senere AEndringer paa udenlandske Skibe. Nr. 260. 26. Oktober 1928. (Lovtidenden A, 1928, No. 36, p. 1267.)

[Notification respecting the application to foreign vessels of certain provisions of the Act of 29 March 1920, respecting the inspection of ships, and the subsequent amendments thereof. Dated 26 October 1928.]

Kgl. Anordning angaaende Lempelser, der tilstaas Maskinpersonal af Søvaernet og vaernepligtige Maskinister med Hensyn til Erhvervelse af Sønaeringsbeviser, Nr. 270. Den 11. November 1928. (Lovtidenden A, 1928, No. 38, p. 1288.)

[Royal Order respecting the facilities for the acquisition of the seamen's certificate to be granted to engine-room employees in the Navy and to engineers liable to compulsory defence service. Dated 11 November 1928.]

Anordning, hvorved Lov Nr. 144 af 10. Maj 1915 om anerkendte Sygekasser, saaledes som denne er aendret i Henhold til Lov Nr. 250 af 6. Maj 1921, Lov Nr. 58 af 31. Marts 1926 og Lov Nr. 201 af 14. Juli 1927, saettes i Kraft paa Faerøerne. Nr. 300. 22. December 1928. (Lovtidenden A, 1929, No. 42, p. 1342.)

[Order No. 300 to bring into operation in the Faroe Islands Act No. 144 of 10 May 1915, respecting recognised sickness funds, as amended in pursuance of Acts No. 250 of 6 May 1921, No. 58 of 31 March 1926, and No. 201 of 14 July 1927. Dated 22 December 1926.

DUTCH EAST INDIES

Besluit van den Gouverneur-Generaal van Nederlandsch-Indië van 2 November 1928 No. 14. Nadere wijziging der "Voorschriften ter uitvoering van de in Staatsblad 1896 No. 72 opgenommen Bepalingen op de emigratie van Inlanders uit Nederlandsch-Indië naar de Nederlandsche Kolonie Suriname" (Staatsblad 1896, No. 73). (Staatsblad van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1928, No. 507.)

[Decree No. 14 of the Governor-General, to amend the "Regulations for the administration of the provisions issued in Staatsblad, 1896, No. 72, respecting the emigration of natives from the Dutch East Indies to the Dutch colony of Surinam". Dated 2 November 1928].

Besluit van den Gouverneur-General van 14 December 1928 No. 17 : Vrijstelling van zegelrecht van stukken betreffende arbeidsovereenkomsten. (Staatsblad van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1928, No. 533.)

[Decree No. 17 of the Governor-General : exemption from stamp duty of documents connected with the contract of employment. Dated 14 December 1928.]

Besluit van den Gouverneur-Generaal van 15 December 1928 No. 14 : Nadere aanvulling en wijziging van de Koelie-ordonnanties voor de Buitengewesten. (Staatsblad van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1928, No. 535.)

[Decree No. 14 of the Governor-General to supplement and amend the Coolie Ordinances for the Outer Provinces. Dated 15 December 1928.]

FRANCE

Décret du 24 avril 1928 portant réglementation de l'émigration et de la circulation des indigènes en Afrique Occidentale Française. (J. O., 1928, No. 101, p. 4834.)

Décret du 5 novembre 1928 rendant applicable en Algérie le décret du 1er mars 1928 modifiant et complétant les articles 57, 60 et 161 du décret du 20 janvier 1914 modifié par le décret du 8 septembre 1921 (exploitation des mines autres que les mines de combustibles). (J. O., 1928, No. 269, p. 12072.)

FRENCH COLONIES

French Somaliland.

Arrêté promulguant le décret du 1er novembre 1928 portant règlement d'administration publique en vue de l'exécution de l'article 71 de la loi du 14 avril 1924 créant une caisse intercoloniale de retraites. Du 6 décembre 1928. (J. O. de la côte française des Somalis, 1928, No. 385, p. 268.)

GREAT BRITAIN

The Dangerous Occurrences Notification Order, 1928, dated 9 November 1928, made by the Secretary of State under the Notice of Accidents Act, 1906 (6 Edw. VII, ch. 53). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 876.)

The Merchant Shipping (Wireless Telegraphy) Rules Amendment Rules (No. 2) 1928, dated 15 November 1928, made by the Board of Trade under the Merchant Shipping (Wireless Telegraphy) Act, 1919 (9 & 10 Geo. V, ch. 38). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 899.)

Order in Council further postponing the commencement of the Merchant Shipping (Convention) Act, 1914 (4 & 5 Geo. V, ch. 50), until 1 January 1930. Dated 20 November 1928. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 935.)

The Contributory Pensions (Collection of Contributions for Persons over 65) Regulations, 1928, dated 20 November 1928, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee, the Minister of Health and the Scottish Board of Health, acting jointly, under section 10 (1) of the Widows', Orphans' and Old-Age Contributory Pensions Act, 1925 (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 70). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 950.)

The National Health Insurance (Approved Societies) Amendment Regulations, 1928, dated 30 November 1928, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee, with the consent of the Treasury and the Ministry of Finance for Northern Ireland, under the National Health Insurance Acts, 1924 and 1926, and the National Health Insurance Act (Northern Ireland), 1926. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 1026.)

The National Health Insurance (Arrears) Amendment Regulations (No. 2), 1928, dated 4 December 1928, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee under the National Health Insurance Act, 1924 (14 & 15 Geo. V, ch. 38). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 955.)

The Various Industries (Silicosis) Scheme, 1928, dated 11 December 1928, made by the Secretary of State under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1925 (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 84). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 975.)

The National Health Insurance (Contractors for Manual Labour) (Exclusion) Order, 1928, being Provisional Special Order, dated 15 December 1928, made by the National Insurance Joint Committee, the Minister of Health, and the Scottish Board of Health, acting jointly, under section 1 of, and paragraph (*f*) of Part I of the First Schedule to, the National Health Insurance Act, 1924 (14 & 15 Geo, V, ch. 38). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 1049.)

The National Health Insurance (Share Fishermen) Order, 1928, being Provisional Special Order, dated 15 December 1928, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee, the Minister of Health, the Scottish Board of Health and the Ministry of Labour for Northern Ireland, acting jointly, under section 1 of, and paragraph (*g*) of Part I and pargraph (*o*) of Part II of the First Schedule to, the National Health Insurance Act, 1924 (14 & 15 Geo. V, ch. 38). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 1050.)

The National Health Insurance (Employment under Local and Public Authorities) Amendment Order, 1928, being Provisional Special Order, dated 22 December 1928, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee and the Minister of Health, acting jointly under paragraph (*d*) of Part I of the First Schedule to, the National Health Insurance Act, 1924 (14 & 15 Geo. V, ch. 38). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 1065.)

The Unemployment Insurance (Mercantile Marine) (No. 2) Special Order, 1928, dated 31 December 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 1093.)

The Unemployment Insurance (Mercantile Marine) Special Order 1928, dated 31 December 1928, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O., 1928, No. 1092.)

Scotland.

Order by the Secretary of State for Scotland, dated 4 December 1928, appointing a day for the transfer of the powers and duties of the Board of Agriculture for Scotland to a Department of Agriculture for Scotland. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. $\frac{958}{S.\ 50}$.)

Order by the Secretary of State for Scotland, dated 4 December 1928, appointing a day for the transfer of the powers and duties of the Scottish Board of Health to a Department of Health for Scotland. (S. R. & O., 1928, No. $\frac{959}{S.\ 51}$.)

The National Health Insurance Employments (Exclusion and Inclusion) Amendment Order (Scotland), 1928, being Provisional Special Order, dated 28 December 1928, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee and the Scottish Board of Health, acting jointly under paragraph (*d*) of Part I of the First Schedule to the National Health Insurance Act, 1924 (14 & 15 Geo. V, ch. 38). (S. R. & O. 1928, No. $\frac{1051}{S. 56}$.)

HUNGARY

A m. kir. miniszterium 5.600/1928. M.E. szamu rendelete a Maganalkalmazottak Biztosito Intezete területi illetékességének es az ennel az intezetnel valo betegsegi biztositas kötelezettsegenek kiterjesztese targyaban. 1928. evi december ho 21.-en. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 292. szám, p. 3.)

[Order No. 5600/1928 of the Council of Ministers, respecting the extension of the local competence of the Insurance Institution for Salaried Employees and of liability to sickness insurance with the said Institution. Dated 21 December 1928.]

A m. kir. miniszterium 5.601/M.E. 1928. szamu rendelete a szinhazak müvészszemelyzetenek es a szerkesztösegek, illetöleg kiadovallalatok egyes hirlapiroi alkalmazottainak az öregseg, rokkantsag, özvegyseg es arvasag esetere szolo kötelezö biztositas hatalya alol valo idoleges mentesitese targyaban. 1928. evi december ho 21-en. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1928, 292. szám, p. 3.)

[Order No. 5601/1928 of the Council of Ministers, respecting the temporary exemption from liability to old-age, invalidity, and widows' and orphans' insurance of artistes in theatres and of certain journalistic employees of newspapers and publishing houses. Dated 21 December 1928.]

A m. kir. népjóléti és munkaügyi miniszternek a m. kir. belügyminiszterrel és a m. kir. kereskedelemügyi miniszterrel egyetéstöen kiadott 156.441/1928. N.M.M. számu rendelete a beköltözés ideiglenes megtiltásáról szóló 5.500/1928. M.E. számu rendelet végrehajtása tárgyában. 1928. évi december ho 21-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1929, 21.szam, p. 1.)

[Order No. 156441/1928 of the Minister of Social Welfare and Labour in agreement with the Ministers of the Interior and Commerce, respecting the administration of Order No. 5500/1928 concerning the temporary prohibition of immigration. Dated 21 December 1928.]

A m. kir. miniszterium 5.430/1928 M.E. számu rendelete a tanyai kirendeltség létesiteséröl. 1928. évi december ho 28-an. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1929, 3. szám,p. 1.)

[Order No. 5430/1928 of the Council of Ministers respecting the establishment of a Smallholdings Office. Dated 28 December 1928.]

A m. kir. földmivelésügyi miniszter 102.800/1928. számu rendelete a tanyai kirendeltség hivatali szervezetének és müködésének szabályozásáról. 1928. évi december hó 28-án. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1929, 3. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 102800/1928 of the Minister of Agriculture, respecting the organisation and duties of the Smallholdings Office. Dated 28 December 1928.]

A m. kir. miniszteriumnak 1928. évi 5.630/M.E. számu rendelete az'állami tisztviselöknek és egyéb alkalmazottaknak, valamint ezek hozzátartozóinak öregség, rokkantság, özvegység és árvaság esetére az 1928 : XL. törvénycikknek megfeletö ellátásá tárgyában. 1928. december 30.-án. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1929, 6. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 5630/1928 of the Council of Ministers, respecting provision for State officials and other public employees and their dependants in case of old age, invalidity, or widowhood or orphanhood : issued under Act No. XL of 1928. Dated 30 December 1928.]

A m. kir. népjóléti és munkaügyi miniszter 6.301/eln. 1928. N.M.M. számu rendelete a betegségi biztositási segélyezéssel kapcsolatos egyes átmeneti rendelkezések tárgyában. 1928. évi december hó 31-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1929, 1. szám. p. 11.)

[Order No. 6301/1928 of the Minister of Social Welfare and Labour, respecting certain transitional provisions in connection with benefit under the sickness insurance system. Dated 31 December 1928.]

IRISH FREE STATE

Acht chun socru do dheanamh chun an ciste liaigh-dheimhniuchain do chimead ar bun agus, chuige sin, chun a udaru go Iocfar suimeanna airithe isteach sa chiste sin agus amach as, fe seach, agus fos chun socru do dheanamh chun achtachan airithe do chimead ar bun a bhaineas le cad deanfar le suimeanna neamh-eilithe i gCuntas diolachain na stampai: Uimhir 37 de 1928. 26adh Mi na Nodlag, 1928.

[An Act to make provision for the continuance of the Medical Certification Fund and for that purpose to authorise the payment of certain sums respectively into and out of that Fund and also to make provision for the continuance of a certain Enactment relating to the application of sums unclaimed in the Stamp Sales Account. No. 37 of 1928. Dated 26 December 1928.

ITALY

Legge 16 dicembre 1928, n. 3042. Istituzione di "Uffici movimento ufficiali" della marina mercantile presso le Capitanerie di porto. (Numero di pubblicazione: 107.) (G. U., 1929, No. 7, p. 124.)

[Act No. 3042, to institute employment exchanges for officers in the merchant service at the harbour masters' offices. Dated 16 December 1928.]

Regio decreto 20 dicembre 1928, n. 3239. Approvazione del regolamento per l'esecuzione del R. decreto-legge 23 luglio 1925, n. 1605, concernente la costituzione di un Istituto nazionale a favore degli impiegati degli enti locali e dei loro superstiti non aventi diritto a pensione. (Numero di pubblicazione: 473). (G. U., 1929, No. 30, p. 567.)

[Royal Decree No. 3239, to approve the regulations under Legislative Decree No. 1605 of 23 July 1925 respecting the establishment of a National Institution for salaried employees of local authorities and their dependants who are not entitled to a pension. Dated 20 December 1928.]

LATVIA

Likums par ligumu at Svenska Tändsticks Aktiebolaget, Stokholma, par serkocimu un serkocinu skalinu razosanu un pardosanu. 1928. g. 29. decembri. (Lik., 1928, 27. burtnica, No. 238, p. 662.)

[Act respecting the contract with the Swedish Match Company *(Svenska Tändsticks Aktiebolaget)* (Stockholm) concerning the manufacture and sale of matches and splints. Dated 29 December 1928.]

LITHUANIA

Uzsienio pasams, leidimams ir vizoms duoti taisykliu, pakeitimas. No. 1921. (Vyriausybés Zinios, 23. Januar 1929, No. 291, p. 10.)

[Amendment of the rules for the granting of passports, permits, and visas. No. 1921. (No date.)]

LUXEMBURG

Arrêté du 7 décembre 1928 approuvant les modifications apportées aux classes et aux coefficients de risques en matière d'assurance-accidents industrielle.

Beschluss vom 7. Dezember 1928, wodurch die an den Gefahrenklassen und Gefahrenziffern in Unfallversicherungsangelegenheiten vorgenommenen Abänderungen genehmigt werden.

(Mémorial, 1928, No. 57, p. 893.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 10 décembre 1928, concernant la majoration des traitements et salaires du personnel des chemins de fer luxembourgeois. (Memorial, 1928, No. 57, p. 889.)

NEW ZEALAND

An Act to extend the operation of the Local Authorities Empowering (Relief of Unemployment) Act, 1926. No. 2 of 1928. Dated 30 June 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 5.)

An Act to make better provision with respect to the examination and registration of surveyors, and the practice of the profession of surveying. No. 6 of 1928. Dated 13 September 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 23.)

An Act to consolidate certain Enactments of the General Assembly relating to the inspection of machinery. No. 17 of 1928. Dated 2 October 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 220.)

[*Inter alia :* employment of children and young persons on machinery, lifts, etc. ; enquiries into accidents ; examination of engine-drivers.]

An Act to amend the Companies Act, 1908. No. 25 of 1928. Dated 6 October 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 410.)

[Section 3 : claims in respect of salaries or wages in event of liquidation.]

An Act to provide for the registration of music teachers. No. 31 of 1928. Dated 6 October 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 435.)

An Act to amend the Electrical Wiremen's Registration Act, 1925. No. 35 of 1928. Dated 6 October 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 458.)

An Act to make better provision with respect to the licensing of and the conduct of business by auctioneers. No. 29 of 1928. Dated 9 October 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 417.)

An Act to amend the law relating to Crown and other Lands. No. 37 of 1928. Dated 9 October 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 494.)

An Act to make provision for the registration of opticians and for the regulation of those who practise as opticians. No. 40 of 1928. Dated 9 October 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 503.)

An Act to amend the Government Railways Act, 1926. No. 43 of 1928. Dated 9 October 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 514.)

[Section 4 : rights of appeal in relation to appointments ; section 5 : subsidies to sickness benefit fund.]

An Act to further amend the laws relating to native lands, and to determine certain claims and disputes in relation to native lands, and to confer jurisdiction upon the Native Land Court and the Native Appellate Court, and for other purposes. No. 49 of 1928. Dated 9 October 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 603.)

An Act to amend the Engineers Registration Act, 1924. No. 50 of 1928. Dated 9 October 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 627.)

An Act to amend the Municipal Corporations Act, 1920. No. 51 of 1928. Dated 9 October 1928. (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 629.)

[*Inter alia :* council may subsidise sickness benefit society of its employees, aid dental clinics, make grants to Workers' Educational Association, and establish accident funds.]

An Act to adopt Part II of the British Nationality and Status of Aliens Act, 1914 (Imperial), to make certain provisions relating to British nationality and the status of aliens in New Zealand, and also to make special provisions with respect to the naturalisation of persons resident in Western Samoa. No. 58 of 1928. (Reserved for the signification of His Majesty's pleasure thereon.) (New Zealand Statutes, 19 Geo. V, 1928, p. 703.)

NIGERIA

Regulations made under the Petroleum Ordinance (Chapter 134). No. 27 of 1928. Dated 10 October 1928.

PERU

Ley No. 6074, dictando nuevas disposiciones sobre alquiler de las casas de habitación. 2 de marzo de 1928. (El Peruano, 1928, No. 88, p. 409.)

[Act No. 6074, issuing new regulations respecting the rents of dwelling houses. Dated 2 March 1928.]

Decreto : Declarando que el personal de oficiales de cubierta, máquina y administración, así como los tripulantes en general de la marina mercante nacional, no estan comprendidos en los effectos de la ley no. 4916. 17 de marzo de 1928. (El Peruano, 1928, No. 76, p. 357.)

[Decree to declare that deck, engine-room, and administrative officers and members of the crew in general in the national mercantile marine shall not be covered by Act No. 4916 (relating to the protection of commercial employees). Dated 17 March 1928.]

Decreto ampliando las funciones de la sección del trabajo del Ministerio de Fomento. 27 de abril 1928. (El Peruano, 1928, No. 117, p. 549.)

[Decree to extend the duties of the Labour Department in the Ministry of Development. Dated 27 April 1928.]

Decreto [considerando a los guardianes de los faros del litoral de la República comprendidos en el artículo 11 de la ley No. 4113]. 23 de julio de 1928. (El Peruano, 1928, No. 32, p. 137.)

[Decree (to declare that lighthouse keepers on the coast of the Republic are covered by section 11 of Act No. 4113). Dated 23 July 1928.]

POLAND

Laws

Ustawa z dnia 19 grudnia 1928 r. w sprawie ratyfikacji konwencji, podpisanej w Rzymie dnia 6 kwietnia 1922 roku, pomiedzy Austrja, Włochami, Polska, Rumunja, Krolestwem Serbow, Chorwatow, Słowencow i Czechosłowacja, dotyczacej emerytur, ktore były przyznane przez dawny rzad austrjacki. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1929, Nr. 3, poz. 26, p. 51.)

[Act to ratify the Convention respecting the superannuation allowances granted by the former Austrian Government, which was signed at Rome on 6 April 1922 by Austria, Italy, Poland, Rumania, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, and Czechoslovakia. Dated 19 December 1928.]

Ustawa z dnia 19 grudnia 1928 r. 2 sprawie ratyfikacji konwencji miedzy Austrja, Włochami, Polska, Krolestwem Serbow, Chorwatow, Słowencow i Czechosłowacja, dotyczacej uregulowania roznych kategoryi emerytur, ktore nie zosaty uregulowane w konwencji rzymskiej z dnia 6 kwietnia 1922 r., podpisanej wraz z protokołem i deklaracjami dodatkowemi w Wiedeniu dnia 30 listopada 1923 r. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1929, No. 3, poz. 27, p. 52.)

[Act to ratify the Convention between Austria, Italy, Poland, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, and Czechoslovakia respecting the settlement of certain classes of superannuation allowance not dealt with in the Convention concluded at Rome on 6 April 1922, and signed together with the Protocol and the supplementary statements in Vienna on 30 November 1923. Dated 19 December 1928.]

Ustawa z dnia 19 grudnia 1928 r. w sprawie ratyfikacji traktatu handlowego i nawigacyjnego pomiedzy Polske a Estonja, podpisanego w Tallinie dnia 19 lutego 1927 roku. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1929, No. 3, poz. 28, p. 52.)

[Act to ratify the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Poland and Eistonia, signed in Tallin on 19 February 1927. Dated 19 December 1928.]

Orders

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Wyznan Religijnych i Oswiecenia Publicznego Ministra Rolnictwa z dnia 3 lutego 1928 r. w sprawie ogłoszenia jednolitego tekstu ustawy z dnia 1 lipca 1926 r. o stosunkach sluzbowych nauczycieli. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 47, poz. 462, p. 1038.)

[Order of the Minister of Ecclesiastical Affairs and Education and the Minister of Agriculture respecting the issue of the consolidated text of the Act of 1 July 1928 respecting the conditions of employment of teachers. Dated 3 February 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Społecznej z dnia 16 marca 1928 z. wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrem Rolnictwa w sprawie zmiany kwot zarobkow rocznych, sluzacych za podstawe przerachowania rent z tytułu wypadkow przy pracy robotnikow rolnych w wojewodztwach poznanskiem i pomorskiem. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 45, poz. 446, p. 1003.)

[Order issued by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, in agreement with the Minister of Agriculture, respecting the alteration of the annual earnings to be taken as the basis for the conversion of pensions for industrial accidents to agricultural workers in the provinces of Posen and Pomerania. Dated 16 March 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Rady Ministrow z dnia 2 kwietnia 1928 r. o stosunku sluzbowym, uposazeniu i zaopatrzeniu emerytalnem pracownikow Powszechnego Zakladu Ubezpieczen Wzajemnych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 51, p. 1101.)

[Order of the Council of Ministers respecting the conditions of employment, pay, and pensions of the salaried employees of the National Mutual Insurance Institution. Dated 2 April 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 14 czerwca 1928 r. o przydzieleniu do kategoryi niebezpieczenstwa przedsiebiorstw, podlegajacych obowiazkowi, ubezpieczenia od wypadkow na obszarze wojewodztw: krakowskiego, lwowskiego, stanislawowskiego, tarnopolskiego, cieszynskiej czesci wojewodztwa slaskiego, warszawskiego wraz z m. st. Warszawa, lodzkiego, kieleckiego, lubelskiego, bialostockiego, wolynskiego, poleskiego, nowogrodzkiego i wilenskiego, oraz o ustaleniu klas niebezpieczenstwa dla poszczegolnych kategoryj niebezpieczenstwa na okres rewizyjny od 1 stycznia 1928 r. do 31 grudnia 1932 r. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 65, poz. 599, p. 1490.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting the classification according to risk of undertakings liable to accident insurance in the provinces of Cracow, Lemberg, Stanislau, Tarnopol, the Teschen part of the province of Silesia, the province of Warsaw with the capital city of Warsaw, Lodz, Kielce, Lublin, Bialystok, Wolyn, Polesie, Nowogrodek, and Vilna, and also respecting the specification of the classes of risk for the revision period from 1 January 1928 to 31 December 1932. Dated 14 June 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Sprawiedliwosci z dnia 22 czerwca 1928 r. o wykonaniu rozporzadzenia Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 7 marca 1928 r. w sprawie organizacji wieziennictwa. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1928, No. 64, poz. 591, p. 1473.)

[Order of the Minister of Justice respecting the administration of the Order issued by the President on 7 March 1928 respecting prison organisation. Dated 22 June 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Komunikacji z dnia 26 listopada 1928 r. wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrem Spraw Wojskowych o skladzie zalogi statku powietrznego, o zakresie obowiazkow sluzbowych czlonkow zalogi, oraz o rejestrze pilotow. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1929, No. 1, poz. 6, p. 8.)

[Order of the Minister of Communications in agreement with the Minister of War respecting the composition of the crews of aircraft, and the duties of the members of the crew and the register of pilots. Dated 26 November 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Spraw Wewnetrznych z dnia 15 grudnia 1928 r. o ruchu cudzoziemców, wydane co do §§ 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 22, 29, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 38, 44 i 45 w porozumieniu z Ministrem Spraw Zagranicznych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1929, No. 5, poz. 49, p. 69.)

[Order of the Minister of the Interior respecting the immigration and sojourn of aliens (sections 1-4, 7-9, 11-15, 18-19, 22, 29, 31-35, 38, 44, and 45), issued in agreement with the Minister of Foreign Affairs. Dated 15 December 1928.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 22 grudnia 1928 r. o zmianie niektórych postanowień rozporządzenia Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 23 grudnia 1927 r. w sprawie wykonania rozporządzenia Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej o emigracji. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1929, No. 2, poz. 21, p. 45.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare to amend certain provisions of his Order of 23 December 1927 respecting the administration of the Order issued by the President (on 11 October 1927) concerning emigration. Dated 28 December 1928.]

PORTUGUESE COLONIES

Angola.

Portaria No. 262: Determina que tôdas as licenças de recrutamento concedidas ao abrigo do Regulamento Geral do Trabalho dos Indigenas, caduquem logo que entre em pleno vigor o Codigo do Trabalho dos Indigenas. 10 de Dezembro de 1928. (Boletim Oficial da Colonia de Angola, 1929, No. 2, p. 18.)

[Order No. 262, to provide that all recruiting licences issued under the General Native Labour Regulations (of 14 October 1914) shall expire immediately upon the coming into full operation of the Native Labour Code (of 6 December 1928). Dated 10 December 1928.]

Portuguese East Africa.

Diploma Legislativo da Colonia no. 36. Define as condições especiais que devem caracterizar od indigenas ou não indigenas, para o efeito da aplicação do estatuto e diplomas especiais promulgados para os primeiros, 12 de Novembro de 1928. (Boletim da Companhia do Niassa, 1928, No. 368, p. 3627.)

[Legislative Decree No. 36, to define the special conditions which characterise persons as natives and non-natives respectively for the purpose of the administration of the Code and special orders promulgated in respect of natives. Dated 12 November 1928.]

SALVADOR

Decreto. — Refórmase el decreto de Consejo de Ministros, de 23 de septiembre de 1926, que se refiere a la obligación de depositar 100 dolares en que estan los extranjeros al ingresar al territorio. 5 de enero de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 5, p. 29.)

[Decree to amend the Decree of the Council of Ministers of 23 September 1926, relating to the compulsory deposit of 100 dollars by foreigners on entering the country. Dated 5 January 1928.]

Decreto. — Reformas a la Ley Orgánica del Servicio Exterior de la República y a la Ley Orgánica del Cuerpo Consular. 11 de junio de 1928. (Diario Oficial, 1928, No. 143, p. 1177.)

[Decree to issue amendments to the General Act respecting foreign service and the General Act respecting the consular corps. Dated 11 June 1928.]

SWITZERLAND

Fribourg.

* Loi du 13 novembre 1928 concernant l'allocation de subsides pour l'assurance-chômage.

Règlement d'exécution de la loi du 13 novembre 1928 sur le subventionnement de l'assurance-chômage. Du 15 décembre 1928.

LEGISLATION OF 1929

TERRITORIES UNDER THE CONTROL OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Saar Territory.

Personal- und Dienstordnung für das Büro der Justizbehörden (Gerichte und Staatsanwaltschaft). Vom 14. Januar 1929. Nr. 53. (Amtsblatt, 1929, No. 5, p. 20.)

Abänderung der Ausführungsbestimmungen zur Verordnung betr. die Beschäftigung von Erwerbslosen. Nr. 51. Vom 25. Januar 1929. (Amtsblatt, 1929, No. 5, p. 20.)

Verordnung betr. Abänderung des Gewerbegerichtsgesetzes. Nr. 57. Vom 25. Januar 1929. (Amtsblatt, 1929, Nr. 5, p. 35.)

Verordnung betr. die Abfindung weiblicher Beamten, sofern das Ausscheiden aus dem Dienst im Hinblick auf die Verheiratung erfolgen muss. Vom 15. Februar 1929. Nr. 92. (Amtsblatt, 1929, No. 8, p. 51.)

Bestimmungen für die Regelung der Pensionen (Ruhegehälter) und der Hinterbliebenenbezüge der staatlichen Beamten des Saargebietes. Vom 15. Februar 1929. Nr. 91. (Amtsblatt, 1929, No. 8, p. 50.)

MANDATED TERRITORIES

Iraq.

Law for the protection of the public health. No. 6 of 1929. Dated 27 January 1929/16 Sha'ban 1347. (Iraq Government Gazette, 1929, No. 9, p. 66.)

New Guinea.

An Ordinance to amend the Explosives Ordinance 1928. No. 1 of 1929. Dated 25 January 1929. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1929, No. 11, p. 128.)

[*Inter alia:* compensation to natives for injuries received in the course of employment.]

Tanganyika Territory.

Government Notice No. 23, under the Master and Native Servants Ordinance, 1928 (No. 24 of 1928), to declare that the said Ordinance shall come into operation on 1 April 1929. Dated 9 February 1929. (Supplement to the Tanganyika Territory Gazette, 1929, Vol. X, No. 8, p. 22.)

Government Notice No. 24, under the Master and Native Servants Ordinance, 1928 (No. 24 of 1928) [issuing Regulations to prescribe the form for the record of deductions from wages]. Dated 9 February 1929. (Supplement to the Tanganyika Territory Gazette, 1929, Vol. X, No. 8, p. 23.)

Government Notice No. 25, under the Master and Native Servants Ordinance, 1928 (No. 24 of 1928), issuing an Order in Council to order that the powers given by section 12 of the said Ordinance shall not be exercised by employers in non-agricultural industries or by any employer whose usual place of residence is within three miles from the usual office of a magistrate or of a special magistrate under the Master and Native Servants Ordinance 1923. Dated 9 February 1929. (Supplement to the Tanganyika Territory Gazette, 1929, Vol. X, No. 8, p. 24.)

INTERNATIONAL

Portugal-Norway

Acôrdo entre Portugal e a Noruega sôbre o reconhecimento reciproco dos certificados de navigabilidade, assinado em Lisboa a 7 de Fevereiro de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 38, p. 523.)

[Agreement between Portugal and Norway respecting reciprocal recognition of certificates of seaworthiness, signed in Lisbon on 7 February 1929.]

Portugal-Sweden.

Acôrdo entre Portugal e a Suécia sôbre o reconhecimento reciproco dos certificados de navigabilidade. 3 de Janeiro de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 9, p. 72.)

[Agreement between Portugal and Sweden respecting reciprocal recognition of certificates of seaworthiness. Dated 3 January 1929.]

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth.

Invalid and Old-Age Pensions Regulations. Amendment of regulation 5 and Forms 2, 3, 4, 23, 27, 31 and 33. Dated 25 January 1929. (C.S.R., 1929, No. 9.)

Norfolk Island.

An Ordinance to regulate the use of motor cars and certain other vehicles within the Territory of Norfolk Island. No. 1 of 1929. Dated 25 January 1929. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1929, No. 14, p. 195.)

AUSTRIA

Bundesgezetz vom 17. Jänner 1929, wirksam für das Burgenland, betreffend Aenderung des Landesgesetztes vom 12. Juli 1923, L.G.Bl. Nr. 43 (Bundesgezetz vom 19. Juli 1923, B.G.Bl. Nr. 450), über die vorläufige Regelung der Schulpflicht im Burgenlande. (B.G.Bl., 1929, 17. Stück, No. 72, p. 497.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung im Einvernehmen mit den beteiligten Bundesministern vom 19. Jänner 1929 über die Bemessung der Arbeitslosenversicherungsbeiträge für jene Personen, die nach den Bestim-

mungen des Landarbeiterversicherungsgesetzes versichert sind und auch der Arbeitslosenversicherungspflicht unterliegen. (B.G.Bl., 1929, 14. Stück, No. 53, p. 479.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für Justiz im Einvernehmen mit dem Bundesminister für soziale Verwaltung vom 30. Jänner 1929 über die Schiedsgerichte der Landarbeiterversicherungsanstalten. (B.G.Bl., 1929, 15. Stück, No. 61, p. 486.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für Handel und Verkehr im Einvernehmen mit dem Bundeskanzler und den beteiligten Bundesministern vom 9. Februar 1929 über Abänderung der Verordnung vom 15. Juli 1927, B.G.Bl. Nr. 227, betreffend Dampfkessel, Dampfgefässe, Druckbehälter und Wärmekraftmaschinen. (B.G.Bl., 1929, 19. Stück, No. 83, p. 518.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung im Einvernehmen mit dem Bundesminister für Land- und Forstwirtschaft vom 11. Februar 1929, betreffend den Wirksamkeitsbeginn der Bestimmungen des Landarbeiterversicherungsgesetzes über die Krankenversicherung im Bundeslande Salzburg. (B.G.Bl., 1929, 18. Stück, No. 80, p. 506.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für Handel und Verkehr vom 22. Februar 1929 über gewerberechtliche Begünstigungen für Schüler von Lehranstalten für das Kleidermacher-, das Modisten- und das Gold-, Silber- und Perlenstickereigewerbe. (B.G.Bl., 1929, 21. Stück, Nr. 97, p. 532.)

BELGIUM

* Arrêté royal du 25 janvier 1929 concernant les industries ou branches d'industrie dans lesquelles le temps nécessaire à l'exécution du travail ne peut être, en raison de sa nature, déterminé d'une manière précise. — Industrie du livre. (Moniteur belge, 1929, No. 30, p. 294.)

* Arrêté royal du 26 janvier 1929, concernant : Modifications apportées aux arrêtés royaux des 3 octobre 1922 et 31 décembre 1924, pris en exécution des lois des 9 avril 1922 et 30 décembre 1924, sur les pensions des ouvriers mineurs. (Moniteur belge, 1929, No. 33, p. 323.)

Arrêté royal du 28 janvier 1929, concernant : Loi du 1er décembre 1928 portant création d'un Office et d'un Fonds spécial en faveur des estropiés et mutilés. Institution d'une commission des allocations. (Moniteur Belge, 1929, No. 31, p. 300.)

Arrêté royal du 8 février 1929 : Loi du 20 juillet 1927 ayant pour objet d'accorder un complément de pension aux bénéficiaires de la pension de vieillesse prévue par la loi du 20 août 1920. Loi du 24 décembre 1928 ayant pour objet d'accorder un complément aux bénéficiaires de la majoration de rente de vieillesse et de l'allocation gratuite de vieillesse prévues par la loi du 10 décembre 1924. — Evaluation des ressources et procédure d'instruction des demandes de compléments. (Moniteur Belge, 1929, No. 45, p. 522.)

Arrêté royal du 14 février 1929 : Modification de l'arrêté royal du 20 novembre 1927 réglementant l'emploi des essoreuses à force centrifuge dans les établissements classés comme dangereux, insalubres ou incommodes. (Moniteur belge, 1929, No. 51, p. 607.)

CANADA

Order in Council (P. C. 114), dated 25 January 1929, to authorise and direct the Department of Labour of Canada to pay pensions monthly to persons of the Northwest Territories under the provisions of the Old-Age Pensions Act. (Labour Gazette, 1929, No. 2, p. 167.)

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Vladni narizeni ze dne 18. ledna 1929, jimz se stanovi volebni rad pro volby v zivnostenskych spolecenstvech a spolecenstevnich jednotach (svazech). (Sb. z. a n., 1929, Castka 4, No. 10, p. 30.)

[Order issuing election rules for the elections held by industrial guilds and federations thereof. Dated 18 January 1929.]

Vladni narizeni ze dne 18. ledna 1929, jimz se opravuje, pokud se tyce doplnuje vladni narizeni ze dne 16. cervence 1926, c. 144 Sb. z. a n., o nemocenskem pojisteni duchovnich cirkvi a nabozenskych spolecnosti statem uznanych (recipovanych), jakoz i ucitelu verejnych skol obecnych a obcanskych, na nez se vztahuje ustanoveni § 1, odst. 2., ucitelskeho zakona. (Sb. z. a n., 1929, Castka 4, No. 11, p. 35.)

[Order to amend and supplement the Order of 16 July 1926 (Slg., No. 144) respecting the sickness insurance of pastors of churches and religious organisations recognised by the State, and of the teaching staff of public elementary and secondary schools insofar as it is covered by section 1 (3) of the Teachers Act. Dated 18 January 1929.]

Vladni narizeni ze dne 2. brezna 1929 o obvodu pusobnosti uradoven Vseobecného pensijniho ustavu v Praze v zemi Ceské a Moravskoslezské. (Sb. z. a n., 1929, Castka 12, No. 27, p. 237.)

[Order respecting the areas under the jurisdiction of the offices of the General Pension Institution at Prague in the provinces of Bohemia and Moravia and Silesia. Dated 2 March 1929.]

DANZIG (FREE CITY OF)

Verordnung zur Abänderung von Vorschriften des Disziplinarrechts. Vom 11. Januar 1929. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1929, No. 3, p. 25.)

Verordnung zur Ausführung des Gesetzes betreffend Errichtung von Arbeitnehmer-Ausschüssen vom 31. August 1928. (Gesetzbl. S. 173.) Vom 25. Januar 1929. (Staatsanzeiger für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1929, Teil I, No. 8, p. 58.)

Verordnung zur Ausführung des Gesetzes betreffend Errichtung von Arbeitnehmer-Ausschüssen vom 31. August 1928. (Gesetzbl. S. 173.) Vom 29. Januar 1929. (Staatsanzeiger für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1929, Teil I, No. 10, p. 65.)

EGYPT

Décret-loi No. 19 de 1929 sur la Nationalité Egyptienne. (J. O. du Gouvernement égyptien, 1929, No. 23, p. 1.)

ESTONIA

Vabariigi Valitsuse poolt 18. jaanuaril 1929 a. vastu voetud 67. Maaseaduse täiendamise ja muutmise seaduse Nr. 2 (RT 52-1927) elluviimise määrus. (Riigi Teataja, 1929, No. 8, p. 93.)

[Order under Act No. 2 to supplement and amend the Agrarian Act (R. T., No. 52 of 1927). Dated 18 January 1929.]

Korraldus töötegemise korra ja töötingimuste kohta tööstuskoolides ja õppetöökodades. 19. veebruaril 1929 a. Nr. 24534. Nr. 118. (Riigi Teataja, 1929, No. 17, p. 149.)

[Regulations for the organisation and conditions of employment in technical schools and apprentice workshops. Dated 19 February 1929.]

FRANCE

Laws.

* Loi portant allocation d'une indemnité de chômage au marin en cas de prise, naufrage ou déclaration d'innavigabilité du navire. Du 15 février 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 41, p. 1970.)

Loi tendant à la ratification du projet de convention concernant le rapatriement des marins, adopté par la conférence internationale du travail, dans sa neuvième session, tenue à Genève, du 7 au 24 juin 1926. Du 17 février 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 47, p. 2330.)

Loi prorogeant [jusqu'au 1er juin 1929] la loi du 30 mars 1928 accordant aux pensionnés de la caisse autonome de retraites des ouvriers mineurs une allocation spéciale pour 1928. Du 28 février 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 52, p. 2554.)

Loi portant ratification du décret du 20 avril 1924 modifiant dans les départements du Bas-Rhin, du Haut-Rhin et de la Moselle l'article 1397 du code des assurances sociales du 19 juillet 1911 concernant la couverture des charges des instituts d'assurances. Du 8 mars 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 59, p. 2834.)

Orders.

Décret prorogeant [jusqu'au 31 décembre 1930] les dispositions du décret du 5 juin 1926 modifiant le régime des allocations supplémentaires attribuées aux titulaires de rentes d'assurances invalidité-vieillesse-survivants d'Alsace et de Lorraine. Du 26 février 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 52, p. 2555.)

Décret fixant les attributions du service de la main-d'œuvre et de l'immigration agricoles, les cadres, les conditions de recrutement, de discipline et d'avancement du personnel. Du 28 février 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 59, p. 2852.)

Décret fixant les bases des tarifs applicables aux diverses catégories de rentes assurées par la caisse nationale de retraites pour la vieillesse. Du 2 mars 1929. (J. O., 1929, No. 55, p. 2696.)

GERMANY

Gesetz über den deutsch-litauischen Handels- und Schiffahrtsvertrag. Vom 14. Februar 1929. (R. G. Bl., II, 1929, No. 10, p. 103.)

Verordnung über den Mindestsatz der im Rechnungsjahre 1929 für die Forderung des Wohnungsbaues bereitzustellenden Mittel. Vom 12. Februar 1929. (R. G. Bl., I, 1929, No. 8, p. 31.)

Verordnung über Krisenunterstützung für Staatslose. Vom 19. Februar 1929. (R. G. Bl., I, 1929, No. 8, p. 31.)

Richtlinien über Gesundheitsfürsorge in der versicherten Bevölkerung. Vom 27. Februar 1929. (R. G. Bl., I, 1929, No. 10, p. 69.)

Bekanntmachung über die Ratifikation des deutsch-litauischen Handels- und Schiffahrtsvertrags. Vom 23. Februar 1929. (R. G. Bl., II, 1929, No. 13, p. 131.)

Verordnung über die Befreiung Oesterreichischer landwirtschaftlicher Wanderarbeiter von der Pflicht zur Arbeitslosenversicherung. Vom 6. März 1929. (R. G. Bl., I, 1929, No. 11, p. 76.)

GREAT BRITAIN

* The Workmen's Compensation (Industrial Diseases) Consolidation Order, 1929, dated 1 January 1929, made by the Secretary of State under section 43 of the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1925 (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 84), consolidating the Orders of 26 February 1918, 31 December 1921, 2 January 1923, 16 January 1924, 18 May 1925, and 30 April 1927, with amendment. (S. R. & O., 1929, No. 2.)

The Trade Boards (Waste Materials Reclamation Trade, Great Britain) (Cotton Waste Branch) (Constitution Proceedings) Regulations, 1929, dated 14 January 1929, made by the Minister of Labour under section 11 of the Trade Boards Act, 1909 (9 Edw. VII, ch. 22). (S. R. & O., 1929, No. 3.)

The Trade Boards (Waste Materials Reclamation Trade, Great Britain) (General Waste Branch) (Constitution and Proceedings) Regulations, 1929, dated 14 January 1929, made by the Minister of Labour under section 11 of the Trade Boards Act, 1909 (9 Edw. VII, ch. 22). (S. R. & O., 1929, No. 4.)

The Workmen's Compensation (Silicosis) Rules, 1929. Dated 23 January 1929. (S. R. & O., 1929, No. $\frac{9}{\text{L. 1}}$.)

The Air Navigation (Amendment) Order, 1929. Dated 29 January 1929. (S. R. & O., 1929, No. 87.)

The Air Navigation (Colonies, Protectorates and Mandated Territories) (Amendment) Order, 1929. Dated 29 January 1929. (S. R. & O., 1929, No. 90.)

The National Health Insurance (Dental Benefit) Regulations, 1929, dated 15 February 1929, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee, the Minister of Health and the Department of Health for Scotland under the National Health Insurance Act, 1928 (18 & 19 Geo. V, ch. 14). (S. R. & O., 1929, No. 112.)

Northern Ireland.

The National Health Insurance (Extension of Enactments to Northern Ireland) Order, 1929. Dated 29 January 1929. (S. R. & O., 1929, No. 79.)

Scotland.

Act of Sederunt anent proceedings under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1925 (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 84), the Metal Grinding Industries (Silicosis) Scheme, 1927, and the Various Industries (Silicosis) Scheme, 1928. Dated 31 January 1929. (S. R. & O., 1929, No. $\frac{77}{S.2}$.)

HUNGARY

A m. kir. népjóléti és munkaügyi miniszter 40/eln. 1929. N.M.M. számu rendelete a betegségi és a baleseti kötelezö biztositásrál szóló 1927. XXI. t.-c. 87. §-a alapján nyujthatá végkielégités számitásának Kulcsa tárgyában. 1929. évi január hó. 7. napján. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1929, 7. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 40/1929 of the Minister of Social Welfare and Labour, respecting the table for the calculation of the lump sums to be granted under section 87 of Act No. XXI of 1927 respecting compulsory sickness and accident insurance. Dated 7 January 1929.]

A m. kir kereskedelemügyi miniszternek 1928. évi 127.071/XI. számu rendelete a lugkö és lugköoldat forgalombaho-zatalának korlátozásárol szóló 1928. évi 98.882. számu rendelet kiegészitése tárgyában. 1929. évi január hó 10.-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1929, 13. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 127071/XI/1928 of the Minister of Commerce, to supplement Order No. 98882/1928 respecting the restrictions upon dealings in caustic soda (whether solid or in solution). Dated 10 January 1929.]

A m. kir. népjóléti és munkaügyi miniszter 80.400/1929. N. M. M. számu rendelete a háztartási alkalmazottak beteg-ségi biztositási bejelentéséröl. 1929. évi január hó 15-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1929, 18. szám, p. 1.)

[Order No. 80400/1929 of the Minister of Social Welfare and Labour respecting notification of the engagement of domestic workers for purposes of sickness insurance. Dated 15 January 1929.]

INDIA

Notification No. 65-I. The Indore Residency Bazars Law, 1929. Dated 20 February 1929. (Gazette of India, 1929, Part. I, No. 8, p. 137.)

IRISH FREE STATE

* The Vehicle Painting Regulations, 1929. No. 5 of 1929. (S. R. & O., 1929, No. 5.)

ITALY

Regio decreto 21 gennaio 1929, n. 62. Approvazione del regolamento per l'esecuzione del testo unico delle leggi di pubblica sicurezza, 6 novembre 1926, n. 1848. (Numero di pubblicazione : 441.) (Supplemento ordinario alla G. U., 1929, No. 26, p. 2.)

[Royal Decree No. 62, to approve the regulations under the consolidated text of the Police Acts, dated 6 November 1926 (No. 1848). Dated 21 January 1929.]

Regio decreto 21 gennaio 1929, n. 76. Riconoscimento giuridico delle Associazioni Sindacali dipendenti dalla Confederazione Nazionale dei Sindacati Fascisti dei Bancarii ed approvazione dei relativi statuti. (Numero di pubblicazione : 470.) (Supplemento ordinario alla G. U., 1929, No. 29, p, 72.)

[Royal Decree No. 76, to grant legal recognition to the trade associations affiliated to the National Federation of Fascist Associations in the Banking Industry, and to approve the relevant rules. Dated 21 January 1929.]

Regio decreto 21 gennaio 1929, n. 77. Riconoscimento giuridico delle Associazioni Sindacali dipendenti dalla Confederazione Nazionale dei Sindacati Fascisti dei Trasporti terrestri e della Navigazione interna, ed approvazione dei relativi statuti. (Numero di pubblicazione : 469.) (Supplemento ordinario alla G. U., 1929, No. 29, p. 60.)

[Royal Decree No. 77, to grant legal recognition to the trade associations affiliated to the National Federation of Fascist Land Transport and Inland Navigation Associations, and to approve the relevant rules. Dated 21 January 1929.]

Regio decreto 21 gennaio 1929, n. 78. Riconoscimento giuridico delle Associazioni Sindacali dipendenti dalla Confederazione Nazionale dei Sindacati Fascisti del Commercio ed approvazione dei relativi statuti. (Numero di pubblicazione : 468.) (Supplemento ordinario alla G. U., 1929, No. 29, p. 42.)

[Royal Decree No. 78, to grant legal recognition to the trade associations affiliated to the National Federation of Fascist Commercial Associations, and to approve the relevant rules. Dated 21 January 1929.]

Regio Decreto 21 gennaio 1929, n. 79. Riconoscimento giuridico delle Associazioni Sindacali dipendenti dalla Confederazione Nazionale dei Sindacati Fascisti dell' Industria, ed approvazione dei relativi statuti. (Numero di pubblicazione : 466.) (Supplemento ordinario alla G. U., 1929, No. 29, p. 2.)

[Royal Decree No. 79, to grant legal recognition to the trade associations affiliated to the National Federation of Fascist Industrial Associations, and to approve the relevant rules. Dated 21 January 1929.]

Regio decreto 21 gennaio 1929, n. 80. Riconoscimento giuridico delle Associazioni Sindacali dipendenti dalla Confederazione Nazionale dei Sindacati Fascisti dell' Agricoltura, ed approvazione dei relativi statuti. (Numero di pubblicazione : 467.) (Supplemento ordinario alla G. U., 1929, No. 29, p. 26.)

[Royal Decree No. 80, to grant legal recognition to the trade associations affiliated to the National Federation of Fascist Agricultural Associations, and to approve the relevant rules. Dated 21 January 1929.]

Regio decreto 8 novembre 1928, n. 2641. Riforma della costituzione del Consiglio superiore della marina mercantile. (Numero di pubblicazione : 3098.) (G U., 1928, No. 284, p. 5925.)

[Royal Decree No. 2641, to alter the constitution of the Superior Mercantile Marine Council. Dated 8 November 1928.]

JOHORE

Notification No. 64 under the Labour Code, 1924, as amended by Enactment 16 of 1928. Gazetted 6 February 1929. (Johore Government Gazette, 1929, No. 6, p. 278.)

[Returns of diseases and deaths on land alienated for mining.]

KENYA

Proclamation No. 34 [to declare that the Harbours Regulation Ordinance, 1928, shall come into force on 11 February 1929]. Assented to 4 February 1929. (Official Gazette of Kenya, 1929, No. 10, p. 257.)

LATVIA

Likums par tirdzniecibas un kugniecibas konvenciju starp Latviju un Turciju. 1929. g. 4. janvari. (Lik., 1929, 1. burtnica, No. 1, p. 1.)

[Act respecting the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Latvia and Turkey (signed at Angora on 28 May, 1928). Dated 4 January 1929.]

Pargrozijumi un papildinajumi likuma par izrademem un izrikojumien. Nr. 11. 1929. g. 15. janvari. (Lik., 1929, 2. burtnica, No. 11, p. 28.)

[Amendments of and additions to the Act respecting spectacles and entertainments (participation of children). Dated 15 January 1929.]

MEXICO

Ley sobre disposiciones especiales para el servicio de cabotaje, interior del puerto y fluvial de la República. 4 de enero de 1929. (Diario Oficial, 1929, No. 28, sección primera, p. 7.)

[Act to issue special provisions respecting the coasting trade, navigation in ports, and inland navigation in Mexico. Dated 4 January 1929.]

MOROCCO

Arrêté viziriel du 14 janvier 1929 (2 chaabane 1347) complétant les arrêtés viziriels du 25 janvier 1928 (2 chaabane 1346), fixant le tarif des frais médicaux et pharmaceutiques en matière d'accidents du travail. (Bulletin officiel du Maroc, 1929, No. 849, p. 257.)

NETHERLANDS

Besluit van den 29sten Januari 1929, tot wijziging van het Koninklijk besluit van 10 Februari 1922, Staatsblad no. 58, tot vaststelling van een algemeenen maatregel van bestuur als bedoeld in artikel 64, onder 2°, der Ongevallenwet 1921, zooals dat besluit is gewijzigd bij Koninklijk besluit van 18 Maart 1924, Staatsblad no. 125. (Staatsblad, 1929, No. 18.)

[Decree to amend the Royal Decree of 10 February 1922 (Staatsblad, No. 58), issuing public administrative regulations in pursuance of section 64, No. 2, of the Accidents Act, 1921, as amended by Royal Decree of 18 March 1924 (Staatsblad, No. 125). Dated 29 January 1929. (Calculation of the present value of pensions bonuses in certain cases.)]

Besluit van den 29sten Januari 1929, tot wijziging van het Koninklijk besluit van 2 April 1927 (Staatsblad no. 76), tot vaststelling van een algemeenen maatregel van bestuur als bedoeld in artikel 64 onder 6° der Ongevallenwet 1921. (Staatsblad, 1929, No. 19.)

[Decree to amend the Royal Decree of 2 April 1927 (Staatsblad No. 76), issuing public administrative regulations as provided in section 64, No. 6, of the Accidents Act, 1921. Dated 29 January 1929. (Industrial accident insurance.)]

Besluit van den 26sten Februari 1929, tot bepaling van de tijdstippen, waarop de artikelen IV, XXXVI en XXXIX van de wet van 2 Juli 1928 (Staatsblad no. 223) tot wijziging der Ongevallenwet 1921 en de artikelen I en II der wet van 7 Februari 1929 (Staatsblad no. 32) tot wijziging van de wet van 2 Juli 1928 (Staatsblad no. 223) in werking zullen treden. (Staatsblad, 1929, No. 61.)

[Decree to fix the dates on which sections IV, XXXVI, and XXXIX of the Act of 2 July 1928 (Staatsblad, No. 223) to amend the Accidents Act, 1921, and section I and II of the Act of 7 February 1929 (Staatsblad, No. 32) to amend the Act of 2 July 1928 (Staatsblad, No. 223), shall come into operation. Dated 26 February 1929.]

Besluit van den 26sten Februari 1929, tot bepaling van de tijdstippen, waarop de artikelen V, XXXV en XXXVI van de wet van 2 Juli 1928 (Staatsblad no. 224) tot wijziging der Land- en Tuinbouwongevallenwet 1922 en de artikelen I en III van de wet van 7 Februari 1929 (Staatsblad no. 31) tot wijziging van de wet van 2 Juli 1928 (Staatsblad no. 224) in werking zullen treden. (Staatsblad, 1929, No. 62.)

[Decree to fix the dates on which sections V, XXXV and XXXVI of the Act of 2 July 1928 (Staatsblad, No. 224), to amend the Agricultural and Horticultural Accidents Act, 1922, and sections I and III of the Act of 7 February 1929 (Staatsblad No. 31) to amend the Act of 2 July 1928 (Staatsblad No. 224), shall come into operation. Dated 26 February 1929.]

NIGERIA

* An Ordinance to provide a Labour Code for Nigeria. No. 1. Dated 7 February 1929. (Supplement to the Nigeria Gazette, No. 6, 7 February 1929.)

An Ordinance to amend the Shipping and Navigation Ordinance No. 2. Dated 7 February 1929. (Supplement to the Nigeria Gazette, No. 6, 7 February 1929.)

NORWAY

Kongelig resolusjon, hvorved der med hjemmel i § 4 i lov om Svalbard av 17 juli 1925 fastsettes forskrifter angående ildsfarlige gjenstander på Svalbard. 1 mars 1929. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1929, No. 9, p. 86.)

[Royal Resolution to issue regulations for inflammable substances on Spitsbergen, in pursuance of section 4 of the Spitsbergen Act of 17 July 1925. Dated 1 March 1929.]

PORTUGAL

Decreto no. 16:342 — Ratifica o Acôrdo entre Portugal e a Suécia sôbre o reconhecimento reciproco dos certificados de navigabilidade. 11 de Janeiro de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 9, p. 72.)

[Decree No. 16342, to ratify the Agreement (of 3 January 1928) between Portugal and Sweden respecting reciprocal recognition of certificates of seaworthiness. Dated 11 January 1929.]

Decreto no. 16:494 — Ratifica o Acôrdo entre Portugal e a Norwega sôbre o reconhecimento reciproco dos certificados de navigabilidade. 7 de Fevereiro de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 38, p. 523.)

[Decree No. 16494, to ratify the Agreement (of 7 February 1929) between Portugal and Norway respecting reciprocal recognition of certificates of seaworthiness. Dated 7 February 1929.]

Decreto no. 16:489 — Aprova o Código de Processo Penal. 15 de Fevereiro de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 37, p. 463.)

[Decree No. 16489, to approve the Penal Procedure Code. Dated 15 February 1929.]

Decreto no. 16:499 — Organiza os serviços da marinha mercante, de conformidade com o decreto no. 16:399, que passou para o Ministério da Marinha todos os serviços relativos ao fomento maritimo existentes noutros departamentos da administração publica. 19 de Fevereiro de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 40, p. 532.)

[Decree No. 16499, respecting the organisation of the mercantile marine services in conformity with Decree No. 16399, which transferred to the Ministry of Marine all the services connected with maritime development in the other public administrative departments. Dated 19 February 1929.]

Decreto no. 16:563 — Fixa o limite de idade para os funcionarios civis dos Ministérios e serviços dependentes e dos corpos e corporações administrativas abandonarem os seus cargos, e bem assim para qualquer cidadao poder ser nomeado para lugar de acesso em repartição publica do Estado, corporações e corpos administrativos de categoria ou vencimentos inferiores aos de chefe de repartição [etc.]. 2 de Março de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 62, p. 607.)

[Decree No. 16563, to fix the age limit for the retirement of civil servants in the Ministries and the departments under them and of those employed by administrative bodies and organisations, and also to fix the age limit for the appointment of any citizen to a post in any public department of the State or an administrative body or organisation in a class or at a salary below that of chief of division. Dated 2 March 1929.]

Decreto no. 16:586 — Aprova, para ser ratificada, a Convenção sôbre reparacão dos desastres no trabalho. 9 de Março de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 57, p. 629.)

[Decree No. 16586, to ratify the Convention concerning workmen's compensation for accidents. Dated 9 March 1929.]

Decreto no. 16:587 — Aprova, para ser ratificada, a Convenção sôbre reparação das doenças profissionais. 9 de Março de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929, No. 57, p. 630.)

[Decree No. 16587, to ratify the Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases. Dated 9 March 1929.]

Decreto no. 16:588 — Aprova, para ser ratificada, a Convenção sôbre igualdade de tratamento dos trabalhadores estrangeiros e nacionais em matéria de reparação de desastres no trabalho. 9 de Março de 1929. (Diario do Govêrno, 1929.No. 57, p. 630.)

[Decree No. 16588, to ratify the Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents. Dated 9 March 1929.]

RUMANIA

Laws

Lege pentru modificarea legii Camerelor de comert si de industrie. 13 Fevruarie 1929. No. 403. (Monitorul Oficial, 1929, No. 36, p. 1294.)

[Act to amend the Act (of 2 March 1927) respecting chambers of commerce and industry. Dated 13 February 1929.]

Lege privitoare la modificarea unor articole din legea de organizare judecâtoreascâ. 14 Martie 1929. No. 798. (Monitorul Oficial, 1929, No. 62, p. 2210.)

[Act to amend certain sections of the Judicature Act. Dated 14 March 1929.]

Lege pentru organizarea si administrarea pe baze comerciale a întreprinderilor si avutiilor publice. 15 Martie 1929. No. 806. (Monitorul Oficial, 1929, No. 62, p. 2194.)

[Act to provide for the organisation and management on a commercial basis of public undertakings and property. Dated 15 March 1929.]

Orders

Decizie no. 254 Consiliului de Ministri. — [Aprobâ recomandarea ou privire la protectiunea femeilor si tinerelor fete emigrante pe bordul vaselor, adoptatâ de Conferinta internationalâ a Muncii, în sesionea 8-a, 1926, precum si recommandarea cu privire la principiile generale ale asigurarii de boalâ, adoptatâ de Conferinta internationalâ a Muncii în sesiunea 10-a, 1927.] 12 Fevruarie 1929. (Monitorul Oficial, 1929, No. 47, p. 1679.)

[Order No. 254 of the Council of Ministers (to approve the Recommendation concerning the protection of emigrant women and girls on board ship, adopted by the International Labour Conference at its Eighth Session (1926), and the Recommendation concerning the general principles of sickness insurance, adopted by the International Labour Conference at its Tenth Session (1927)). Dated 12 February 1929.]

Decret regal no. 442. — Regulamentul personalului didactic al scoalelor secundare. 15 Fevruarie 1929. (Monitorul Oficial, 1929, No. 39, p. 1391.)

[Royal Decree No. 442 : regulations for the teaching staff of secondary schools. Dated 15 February 1929.]

Decreto regal no. 640. — Utilizarea amenzilor incasate în baza legii repausului Duminical. 28 Fevruarie 1929. (Monitorul Oficial, 1929, No. 50, p. 1818.)

[Royal Decree No. 640, respecting the utilisation of the fines imposed under the Sunday Rest Act. Dated 28 February 1929.]

Decizie No. 24521 Ministrului Industriei si Comertului : supravegherea si controlul cazanelor. 28 Fevruarie 1929. (Monitorul Oficial, 1929, No. 56, p. 2001.)

[Order No. 24521 of the Minister of Industry and Commerce respecting the supervision and inspection of boilers. Dated 28 February 1929.]

Decizie No. 11426 Ministrului Sanatatii si Ocrotirilor Sociale : registrele obligatorii pentru institutiunile de asistenta sociala. 3 Martie 1929. (Monitorul Oficial, 1929, No. 60, p. 2149.)

[Order No. 11426 of the Minister of Public Health and Social Welfare, respecting the records which are compulsory for charitable institutions. Dated 3 March 1929.]

SERB-CROAT-SLOVENE KINGDOM

Laws

Act respecting the engagement, transference to different places and grades, placing on half-pay, pensioning, and dismissal of State employees. Dated 12 January 1929. (Sluzbene Novine, 1929, No. 11-VI, p. 77.)

Penal Code of the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. Dated 27 January 1929. (Sluzbene Novine, 1929, No. 33-XVI, p. 157.)

Penal Procedure Code for the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. Dated 16 February 1929. (Sluzbene Novine, 1929, No. 45-XX, p. 209.)

Act respecting the enforcement of the penalty of imprisonment. Dated 16 February 1929. (Sluzbene Novine, 1929, No. 47-XXI, p. 273.)

Orders

Decree respecting cinemas and undertakings for the taking and reproduction of cinematograph films. Dated 18 January 1929. (Sluzbene Novine, 1929, No. 28-XIII, p. 135.)

Regulations for the staff of the transport services. Dated 10 February 1929. (Sluzbene Novine, 1929, No. 45-XX, p. 272.)

Order No. 1481/IV of the Minister of Social Affairs, to provide that workers employed on undertakings in pursuance of the Act respecting the prompt execution of public works (relief works) and assistance for regions affected by the catastrophes of 21 January 1929 shall not be liable to insurance. Dated 11 February 1929. (Sluzbene Novine, 1929, No. 42-XIX, p. 203).

Regulations for the organisation and functions of the Supreme Legislative Council of the Ministry of Justice. Dated 18 February 1929. (Sluzbene Novine, 1929, No. 45-XX, p. 271.)

SPAIN

Real orden prorogando hasta el 30 de Junio del año actual la vida de las Comisiones arbitrales mixtas remolachero y cañero-azucareras, y preparando la constitución de las Comisiones arbitrales de la industria azucarera. 13 de Febrero de 1929. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1929, No. 51, p. 1381.)

[Royal Order to continue until 30 June 1929 the joint arbitration boards in the beetroot and sugar-cane industries, and to make preliminary provisions for the appointment of arbitration boards in the sugar industry. Dated 13 February 1929].

Real orden circular disponiendo que, en adelante, el Carnaval no se considere como un periodo de dias festivos, sino que el lunes y martes siguientes al domingo de Quinquagésima sean dias laborables por completo en oficinas públicas y comerciales, Bancos, Centros docentes y Establecimientos industriales, no permitiéndose en la calle disfraces ni salida de comparsas más que desde las doce de la noche del sábado al amanecer del lunes, pudiéndose celebrar también la fiesta llamada de Piñata durante igual número de horas, referidas al domingo así nombrada. 19 de Febrero de 1929. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1919, No. 51, p. 1367.)

[Royal Order to provide that henceforth the Carnival shall not be deemed to be a continuous holiday, but that the Monday and Tuesday after Quinquagesima Sunday shall be deemed to be full working days in public and commercial offices, banks, educational and industrial establishments, that masquerades and the promenading of parties of masqueraders shall not be allowed outside the hours from midnight on Saturday to Monday morning, and that the festival known as " de Piñata " may be kept during the same number of hours on the Sunday bearing this title (the first Sunday in Lent). Dated 19 February 1929.]

Real orden dando normas para el cumplimiento del artículo 17 del Real decreto de 17 de Octubre de 1927, a fin de dotar de medios económicos a los Comités paritarios de la Vivienda y demás organismos creados por dicho Real decreto. 22 de Febrero de 1929. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1929, No. 57, p. 1501.)

[Royal Order to issue rules for the administration of section 17 of the Royal Decree of 17 October 1927, for the purpose of supplying the joint housing committees and other organisations created by the said Royal Decree with funds. Dated 22 February 1929.]

Real orden dictando las reglas que se indican relativas al pago de mensualidades a las Clases pasivas. 23 de Febrero de 1929. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1929, No. 59, p. 1558.)

[Royal Order to issue rules for the payment to public pensioners of the monthly sums due to them. Dated 23 February 1929.]

Real orden declarando que no es de aplicación a las viudas y huérfanos del Magisterio Nacional Primario la opción establecida en el artículo 17 del vigente Estatuto de Clases pasivas. 23 de Febrero de 1929. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1929, No. 66, p. 1761.)

[Royal Order to declare that the right of choice laid down in section 17 of the Public Pension Code in force does not apply to the widows and orphans of elementary school teachers. Dated 23 February 1929.]

SWEDEN

Kungl. Maj:ts kungörelse angaende undantag för medborgare i Schweiz fran vissa bestämmelser i lagen den 17 juni 1916 (nr 235) om försäkring för olycksfall i arbete. Den 8 februari 1929. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1929. No. 17, p. 24.)

[Royal Proclamation respecting the exemption of Swiss citizens from certain provisions of Act No. 235 of 17 June 1916, respecting insurance against industrial accidents. Dated 8 February 1929.]

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Notification No. 206 (Department of Finance): Regulations framed under section nineteen of the Old-Age Pensions Act (No. 22) of 1928. Dated 1 February 1929. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1929. Vol. LXXV, No. 1756, p. 258.)

Government Notice No. 47, 1929, to provide that the Work Colonies Act, 1927 (Act No. 20 of 1927), shall commence and come into operation on the first day of March 1929. Dated 15 February 1929. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1929, Vol. LXXV, No. 1762, p. 441.)

Government Notice No. 343 to approve the regulations made by the Administration under the provisions of section five of Act No. 8 of 1928, governing the payment of gratuities to certain persons in the service of the South African Railways and Harbours Administration. Dated 22 February 1929. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1929, Vol. LXXV, No. 1762, p. 475.)

Natal.

Notice No. 52 of 1929 to approve, with effect from 1 February 1929, the amendment of Provincial Notice No. 228, 1927 (Regulations governing the Appointment, Status and Salaries of Teachers in Government Schools). Dated 13 February 1929. (Official Gazette of the Province of Natal, 1929, No. 1071, p. 89.)

URUGUAY

Decreto. Se establecen obligaciones para todo encargado del manejo de un motor de máquina trilladora. 31 de Enero de 1929. (Diario Oficial, 1929, No. 6798, p. 529-A.)

[Decree to specify the duties of persons in charge of threshing-machine engines. Dated 31 January 1929.]

WEST INDIES

Saint Vincent.

An Ordinance to make provision with respect to the repatriation of destitute persons born in certain Colonies. No. 7 of 1929. Assented to 2 February 1929.

An Ordinance to amend the Emigrants Protection Ordinance 1927. No. 8 of 1929. Assented to 2 February 1929.

Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

International Labour Office. *Hydro-Extractors. Their Safe Construction and Equipment.* Studies and Reports, Series F, Second Section (Safety), No. 3. Geneva, International Labour Office ; London, P. S. King and Son, 1929. Distributed in the U.S.A. by the World Peace Foundation, 40 Mount Vernon Street, Boston, Mass. 102 pp. 4s. ; $1.

This monograph, prepared by Mr. MASSARELLI, with the assistance of Mr. SCOTTI, is the second of a series of studies which the International Labour Office proposes to publish on individual problems in accident prevention. The first, *Safety in the Use of Chains*, prepared by Mr. DELADRIÈRE, appeared in Vol. IV, No. 2, of the *Industrial Safety Survey*, and is also obtainable as a reprint.

The studies are the outcome of international co-operation. They are carried out by experts proposed by the Correspondence Committee on the Prevention of Accidents, which has been appointed by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to work in conjunction with the service of the Office that deals with accident prevention and the inspection of labour.

—— *Unemployment. Some International Aspects 1920-1928. Report presented to the Twelfth Session of the International Labour Conference, May-June 1929.* Studies and Reports, Series C (Employment and Unemployment), No. 13. Geneva, International Labour Office ; London, P. S. King and Son, 1929. Distributed in the United States by the World Peace Foundation, 40 Mount Vernon Street, Boston, Mass. vii + 222 pp. 5s. ; $1.25.

This report has been prepared for submission to the International Labour Conference in pursuance of a decision of the Governing Body taken in February 1928. Without losing sight of the fact that in each country unemployment is the result of a number of different causes, including many of a national order, the elimination of which would do much to mitigate the seriousness of the evil, it seemed likely that the Conference would prefer to concentrate its attention on those aspects of the problem that can only be dealt with internationally. An attempt is therefore made in the report to throw into relief the effects on unemployment of certain important international factors during the last few years. In the first place an investigation is made into the influence of currency fluctuations — phenomena which are reflected in variations in the general price level, and which affect nearly all branches of production practically simultaneously. In the second place, an examination is made of conditions affecting the regularity of employment and business activity in certain special industries (coal and textiles). Even in this restricted field it has not been possible to make an exhaustive study of all the aspects of the problem, and the Office has had to confine itself to throwing light upon a few essential factors. Finally, since unemployment in certain countries may be ascribed to an unstable equilibrium between the quantity of labour available and the productive capacity of the country, the latter being determined as much by the amount of capital invested as by the opportunities for finding an outlet for goods, the report contains a certain amount of information bearing upon the problem of the international distribution of labour.

League of Nations. *The Aims and Organisation of the League of Nations.* Publications of the League of Nations XII. A. Intellectual Co-operation 1928. XII. A. 6. Geneva, 1929. 96 pp.

This publication, which has been prepared on the instructions of the Assembly of the League of Nations and circulated to the Governments, is designed for the use of teachers. It contains a complete description of the aims and organisation

of the League and can be used separately. It is suggested, however, that it should form a common basic chapter, to be included as it stands in reference books on the work of the League prepared in the different countries for their own use.

Commission internationale permanente pour l'étude des maladies professionnelles. *IV^e Réunion, Lyon, 3-6 avril 1929. Rapports. La silicose pulmonaire. Les cataractes professionnelles. Les lésions des glandes endocriniennes dans les intoxications.* Lyon, 1929. XVIII + 304 pp.

Contains the reports submitted to the Fourth Congress of the Permanent International Committee on Occupational Diseases, held at Lyons from 3 to 6 April 1929 (cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, 29 April 1929, Vol. XXX, No. 5, pp. 118-120).

Fédération internationale de la presse technique. *Quatrième Congrès international de la presse technique et professionnelle. Genève, 27-31 août et 1^er septembre* 1928. 412 pp. illustr.

Generalsekretariat des Internationalen Bergarbeiterverbandes. *Protokoll des 28. Internationalen Bergarbeiter Kongresses in Nimes, 28.-31. Mai 1928.* Bochum, 1928. 176 pp.

Institut international d'Agriculture. *Annuaire international de législation agricole.* XVII^e année, 1927. Rome, 1928. LXXI + 354 pp. 60 lire.

The seventeenth volume of the international year book of agricultural legislation is published in a more condensed form than preceding issues. It is announced, however, that the practice of publishing the texts of the more important laws and decrees will be resumed in 1928 ; in the present volume summaries only are included.

Union internationale des organisations des ouvriers et ouvrières des industries de l'alimentation. *Procès-verbal du IV^e Congrès. Vienne, 2-4 juillet 1928.* 64 pp.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics. *Labour Report, 1927.* No. 18. Melbourne, 1928. 187 pp.

CANADA

Department of Labour. *Report of the Department of Labour for the Fiscal Year ending 31 March 1928.* Ottawa, 1929. 200 pp. 40 cents.

CHILE

Ministerio de Bienestar Social. *Memoria correspondiente a los años 1924, 1925, 1926 y 1927.* Santiago, 1929. 206 pp.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Ministerstvo Financi. *Zatizeni Spotreby Verejnymi Bremeny. Roku 1925 v Republice Ceskoslovenské Podle Domacich Uctu Delnickych a Urednickych Rodinv* Vol. 1. Prague, 1928. 144 pp. 40 crowns.

Report of the Permanent Committee on Estimates of the Ministry of Finance on taxation and its effects on workers' and civil servants' families in 1925.

Statni urad statisticky. *Statisticka Prirucka Republiky Ceskoslovenské.* III. Prague, 1928. XVI + 470 + VII pp. 45 crowns.

The Czechoslovak statistical handbook, published in December 1928, contains figures for the period 1918-1927 compiled by the Statistical Office.

DENMARK

Indenrigsministeriet. *Indberetning til Indenrigsministeriet om Arbejdsanvisningen og Arbejdsloshedsforsikringen M.M. 1. Regnskabsaaret 1926-27, fra 1. April 1926 til 31. Marts 1927.* Saertryk af *Socialt Tidsskrift*, Januar 1929. Copenhagen, 1929. 68 pp.

Annual report of the Ministry of the Interior for 1926-1927 concerning the activities of the public employment exchanges and the unemployment insurance funds.

FRANCE

Commissions départementales du Travail dans l'Industrie. *Compte rendu du VIII^e Congrès national tenu à Paris 5-8 octobre 1928.* Sous le Haut Patronage de M. le Ministre du Travail, de l'Hygiène, de l'Assistance et de la Prévoyance sociales et la Présidence d'Honneur de M. le Préfet de Police. Paris, 1928. 213 pp.

Ministère de l'Instruction publique, Direction générale de l'Enseignement technique. Ministère de l'Agriculture. Ministère du Travail, de l'Assistance et de la Prévoyance sociales. *Semaine pédagogique de l'artisanat rural organisée avec le concours de l'Association française pour le développement de l'enseignement technique, Lyon, 5, 6 et 7 novembre 1928.* Paris. 221 pp.

One of the questions discussed during the "week" devoted to training in rural handicrafts was how to enable agriculturists to acquire the manual skill necessary for the proper use, maintenance and repair of agricultural equipment and the upkeep of farm buildings.

GERMANY

Reichsarbeitsministerium. *Deutsche Sozialpolitik 1918-1928.* Berlin, Verlag E. S. Mittler, 1929. VII + 319 pp., illustr.

Both the Federal Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare of the Free State of Saxony have published surveys summarising their activities during the first ten years' of their existence. The second publication is mentioned below. In view of the fact that this period saw a very rapid development of labour law and social protection in Germany, the account given in these reports is of special interest, particularly to the foreigner.

According to the new Constitution of Weimar, labour legislation is within the competence of the Reich, and the Federal State may legislate only on matters not dealt with by the Reich. For this reason the first report is the more interesting.

After a short introduction, it treats first of the new methods of social policy and next of the history of the Ministry. It then deals in a succinct and clear manner with labour law, labour protection, wage policy, conciliation and arbitration, the labour market, unemployment insurance, protection of disabled men, welfare work, housing and land settlement. The last chapter deals with Germany's position in the International Labour Organisation.

SAXONY

Arbeits- und Wohlfahrtsministerium. *10 Jahre, 1919-1929.* Dresden, 1929. 334 pp. illustr.

Describes the activities of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare of the State of Saxony during the period 1919-1929.

Sächsisches Statistisches Landesamt. *Statistisches Jahrbuch für den Freistaat Sachsen.* 47. Ausgabe. *1927-1928.* Dresden, 1929. 416 pp. 4.50 marks.

GREAT BRITAIN

Board of Trade. Mercantile Marine Department. *Boiler Explosions. Report by the Board of Trade upon the working of the Boiler Explosions Acts 1882 and 1890. During the Year ended 31 December 1927. With Appendices.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1929. 14 pp. 2s.

Home Office. *Report on the Occurrence of Silicosis among Sandstone Workers.* By Dr. C. L. SUTHERLAND and Dr. S. BRYSON. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1929. 14 pp. 1s. 6d.

This report contains the results of an enquiry undertaken in 1927 to obtain evidence regarding the occurrence of silicosis among workers in sandstone. The works visited included building sites, builders' yards, and quarries. All the men examined were actually working at the time ; 454 clinical examinations were made, with 266 radiological examinations. The report shows that the disease was diagnosed at an earlier stage by clinical examination than by radiological examination.

As Dr. MIDDLETON, Medical Inspector of Factories, points out in an introductory memorandum, the report gives certain valuable indications of the occurrence of silicosis in relation to different factors which have a bearing on its causation, for example, the nature of the occupation, the duration of the employment, and conditions which modify the production of the disease.

—— *Workmen's Compensation. Statistics of Compensation and Proceedings under the Workmen's Compensation Acts, and the Employers' Liability Act, 1880, in Great Britain during the year 1927.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1929. 33 pp. 9d.

India Office. *East India (Progress and Condition). Statement exhibiting the Moral and Material Progress and Condition of India during the Year 1927-28.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1929. XVIII + 461 pp. 4s. 6d.

An Indian edition of this report is also published under the title *India in 1927-1928* (see below, under "India").

Medical Research Council. Industrial Fatigue Research Board. *The Use of Performance Tests of Intelligence in Vocational Guidance.* An Investigation conducted for the National Institute of Industrial Psychology. By F. M. EARLE, M.Ed., B.Sc., M. MILNER, B.Sc., and other Members of its Staff. Report No. 53. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1929. v + 76 pp. 2s. 6d.

The results of the tests used in the course of this investigation were analysed with two objects, first to determine whether these tests are satisfactory instruments of measurement, and secondly to discover the nature of the abilities measured by the separate tests. The analyses (which are given in detail) have reference, *inter alia*, to the standardisation of the tests at school-leaving age, to the influence of general intelligence upon success in these performance tests, to the possible presence of a group factor connecting tests into which spatial elements enter, and to the relation between success in some of these tests and success in certain manual trades.

HUNGARY

Magyar Kiralyi Allami Munkaközvetito Hivatal. *Jelentése a Hivatalnak és a Felügyeletére Bizott Hatosagi Munkakozvetitoknek 1927. Evi Müködéséról.* Budapest, 1928. 45 pp.

Report on the activities of labour exchanges in Hungary during 1927.

INDIA

India in 1927-1928. By J. COATMAN. Calcutta, Govt. of India Central Publication Branch, 1928. XVIII + 461 pp. Rs. 2-8-0 ; 4s. 6d.

BOMBAY

Labour Office. *Report on the Enquiry into Family Budgets of Cotton Mill Workers in Sholapur City.* Bombay, Government Central Press, 1928. 73 + VIII pp. Rs. 2-11-0 ; 4s. 9d.

This is the third of a series of enquiries into workmen's family budgets conducted by the Bombay Labour Office, the first two being for the cities of Bombay and Ahmedabad. The present enquiry was carried out by the "interview" method

from May to December 1925, and the results are based on the analysis of 1,055 budgets, of which 902 are related to the families of the cotton mill workers in Sholapur and 153 to those living in the Criminal Tribes Settlement near Sholapur.

PUNJAB

Development Department. *Report on the Working of Co-operative Societies in the Punjab. For the Year ending 31 July 1928.* Lahore, 1929. 6 + 44 + CXXVIII pp. Rs. 3-0-0; 4s. 6d.

IRISH FREE STATE

National Health Insurance Commission. *Report on the Administration of National Health Insurance in All Ireland from 1 April 1921 to 31 March 1922. Saorstat Eireann from 1 April 1922 to 31 March 1928.* Dublin, Stationery Office, 1928. 80 pp. 1s.

ITALY

Istituto centrale di statistica. *Compendio statistico.* Rome, 1929. XIII + 269 pp. 5 lire.

Ministero dell' Economia nazionale. Casellario centrale infortuni. *Relazione sul funzionamento dei servizi e sull' attività svolta dall' Istituto nel V° anno di esercizio (1927).* Rome, 1928. 301 pp.

Report for 1927 on the activities of the Italian Central Registry of Industrial Accidents, whose functions include on the one hand, the collection, classification and co-ordination of research data and documents relating to industrial accidents (including accidents to agricultural workers), and on the other, the supply to insurance institutions of intelligence likely to help in checking fraudulent applications for compensation.

In addition to a description of the working and financial organisation of the Registry, the report includes an abstract of information communicated to insurance institutions, statistical data relating to these institutions, a classification of accidents according to severity rate, cause, time, industry, and insurance institution. These interesting statistics are divided into two groups relating respectively to accidents in industry and accidents in agriculture.

—— **Direzione Generale del Lavoro, della Previdenza e del Credito.** *Guida per l'applicazione del regolamento generale per l'igiene del Lavoro.* Rome, 1928. XVI + 244 pp.

The first part of this work contains the text of the regulations for the administration of the Italian Decree on Industrial Hygiene of 14 April 1927. These regulations apply to industrial and commercial establishments and to agricultural undertakings. The second part, which is devoted to legislation on industrial hygiene, contains the text of laws, decrees and regulations in force in Italy. A detailed index to the first part of the volume facilitates reference.

SWEDEN

K. Socialdepartementet. *Arbetsfredskonferensen i Stockholm den 30 november och 1 december 1928.* Stockholm, Norstedt, 1929. 144 pp.

Report of the proceedings of the Industrial Peace Conference held at Stockholm, 30 November and 1 December 1928 (cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XXVIII, No. 13, p. 381). The work of this Conference is being continued by a Joint Delegation composed of representatives of the Swedish Employers' Federation and the Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions and a certain number of members appointed by the Government, including representatives of engineers and foremen.

SWITZERLAND

Volkswirtschaftsdepartement. Preisbildungskommission. *Zementerzeugung und Zementhandel in der Schweiz.* Berne, 1929. 68 pp.

UNITED STATES

Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. *United States Census of Agriculture, 1925. Summary Statistics, by States. Final Figures.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. VI + 149 pp. 20 cents.

—— **Bureau of Mines.** *Falls of Roof in Bituminous Coal Mines. Influence of the Seasons and Rate of Production.* By J. W. PAUL. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. 40 pp. 10 cents.

Department of Labour. Bureau of Labour Statistics. *Conditions in the Shoe Industry in Haverhill, Mass., 1928.* Bulletin No. 483. Miscellaneous Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1929. III + 107 pp. 20 cents.

—— —— *Retail Prices 1890 to 1927.* Bulletin No. 464. Retail Prices and Cost of Living Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1928. IV + 221 pp. 35 cents.

PENNSYLVANIA

Department of Labour and Industry. Bureau of Women and Children. *A History of Child Labour Legislation in Pennsylvania.* Special Bulletin No. 27. Harrisburg, 1928. 31 pp.

A survey of the network of legislation which, slowly but steadily, has been constructed in the State of Pennsylvania for the protection of children employed there. These laws prohibit the employment in industry of children of certain ages, and define the working conditions of children who may be employed, and the educational training which must continue while children are carrying on their industrial work. The Bureau evaluates each phase of the various child labour laws, showing how standards have been raised or lowered, and, while maintaining an attitude of impartial criticism, urges a reconsideration of child labour standards by employers and authorities on school and labour problems, to the end that children may be protected against the strains and risks which still form an inherent part of the industrial system.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

All-India Trade Union Congress. *Ninth Session held at Jheriah 18-20 December 1928. Presidential Address* by M. DAUD, M.A., B.L. 47 pp.

This address contains a brief account of the trade union movement in India, and a statement of some of the grievances and demands of labour.

Andelsverksamheten i Finland 1925. Pellervos Arsbok XXV. Helsingfors, Sällskapet Pellervo, 1928. VIII + 387 pp.

Statistics relating to co-operation in Finland during 1925. The principal recapitulatory tables are provided with headings in English, German and French.

Arbeidernes faglige landsorganisasjon. *Beretning for aaret 1927.* For Sekreteriatet ved Halvard OLSEN og J. TEIGEN. Oslo, Arbeidernes Aktietrykkeri, 1928. 128 pp.

Annual report of the Norwegian Federation of Trade Unions for 1927. In addition to a survey of the activities of the Federation, which at the end of the year 1927 grouped 30 national unions with 1,314 local branches and a total of 94,154 members, the report contains an important statistical part relating to collective agreements, labour disputes, etc.

Bachi, Riccardo. *La politica della congiuntura. Prevenzione e attenuazione degli effetti delle crisi economiche.* Reprinted from the *Rivista di Politica Economica*, Dec. 1928, Jan. and Feb. 1929. Rome, Fratelli Bocca. 148 pp. 15 lire.

After recalling the injurious effects of cyclical fluctuations in economic activity, the author describes remedies and preventive measures. Among the first, he

rapidly reviews unemployment insurance, placing, a better distribution of the demand for commodities over a given period of time, assistance to undertakings, changes in agricultural technique, improved management, industrial agreements, and consumers' credit (instalment selling).

In the part of the study devoted to preventive measures, he examines the problems of monetary stabilisation and credit organisation in the light of experiments carried out during recent years by the United States Federal Reserve Board. In conclusion, he sets forth the dilemma—stability of exchange rates or stability of the level of prices on the home market—and points out that cyclical fluctuations, if harmful in some respects, also have useful results.

Bernhard, Dr. Hans. *Landbauzonen, ländliche Entvölkerung und landwirtschaftliche Einwanderung in Frankreich, mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der schweizerischen Ansiedlung in Südwestfrankreich.* Beiträge zur Agrargeographie Nr. 3. Berne, Kümmerly u. Frey, 1927. 137 pp. 12 frs.

This interesting report gives the results of an enquiry, in part financed by the University of Zurich, and undertaken by a Swiss investigator in the spring and early summer of 1926, on the settlement of Swiss emigrants on farms in the south-west of France, a movement which has been going on since the end of the war. The report is extended to include a general survey of agricultural conditions in this part of France, and also of the French rural exodus. The facts, especially those on the rural exodus, are very well put together and are illustrated by a series of coloured maps.

The author is an expert on home agricultural settlement in his own country and therefore speaks with authority on the special subject of the enquiry, the settlement of Swiss emigrants on French soil. His verdict is favourable to the movement, which he thinks offers good prospects to the settlers; the cheap price of land is a great attraction. The farms acquired are larger than the average farm from which the settlers come, and are usually consolidated—the settlers avoid fragmented farms, being too well acquainted with the evils of fragmentation in their own country—but often in bad condition owing to want of labour; the buildings are apt to be in a very poor state; some of the farms investigated had previously been abandoned for many years. In general, the author considers the average housing accommodation on the French farms of these districts inferior to Swiss standards, but the French standard of food to be higher than that to which the settlers are accustomed at home. A suggestion is made that settlers should be trained on a model farm before acquiring or leasing land, and that advice should be available on the drawing up of leases.

Bezanson, Anne. *Earnings and Working Opportunity in the Upholstery Weavers' Trade in 25 Plants in Philadelphia. An Experiment in Co-operative Research.* Industrial Research Department, Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, University of Pennsylvania. Research Studies, 1. Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press, 1928. xix + 131 pp. $2.50.

The object of this study is to determine the economic status of workers in the single occupation of weaving in the Philadelphia upholstery industry. The 25 mills covered include all the tapestry manufacture of significance in Philadelphia; they produce a high percentage of the total output of the United States. The detailed analysis of the data is published both because of its interest to students of wage statistics and in the hope that employers and workers in the industry may undertake joint research to improve the position of the workers in those establishments where conditions are relatively unfavourable. It is interesting to note that the statistics of wages and hours used were compiled, not from the employers' pay-rolls, which are the usual source of statistics of earnings, but from weekly reports furnished by individual weavers over a period of two years (1926 and 1927). For workmen who moved from one plant to another, it was possible to have a continuous record of earnings and hours of the same worker under different employers with different policies of management, with equipment of different type and age, under different conditions of loom repair, and different methods of supervision.

The study shows differences in hourly earnings from mill to mill; although all the mills were working on the same piece-work scale, the differences are great,

the median in the lowest plants being 22 cents per hour less than that in the highest. These differences affect the attitude of the workers, the amount of labour turnover and other problems of stability in the industry. Variations in hourly earnings of different workmen within the same mill are examined. The statistics also show a difference in the level of earnings from plant to plant as great as eleven to twelve dollars per week. The effect of fluctuations in working time on earnings is considered. Change by workmen from one plant to another is shown to have resulted in some net gain in earnings, as well as in a wider experience. The whole study throws light on both labour and administrative problems of the industry and is also of interest from the point of view of the methods of analysis applied to the statistics.

Cada, Dr. Frantisek. *Ceskoslovenska literatura pravnicka a statovedecka v letech 1926-1927.* Prague, Bursik and Kohout, 1928. 90 pp.

Bibliography of works on law, political economy and sociology published in Czechoslovakia in 1926 and 1927.

Caillat, J., and Paemelaere, F. de. *Anthologie du travail.* Preface by E. Herriot. Vol. I. *Les villes.* Paris, Les arts et le livre, 1928. xi + 308 pp. illustr. 12 frs.

This "anthology of labour", designed for children of school age, brings together the testimony of artists and writers who have taken an interest in human labour. The first volume deals with labour in towns; the second and third will be entitled respectively "The soil and the sea" and "Throughout the world".

Capelle, G., Baumann, A., and Feindler, R. *Zugbildungskosten, Zugförderkosten und ihre Wechselbeziehungen.* Sonderdruck aus der *Verkehrstechnischen Woche.* Zeitschrift für das gesamte Verkehrswesen. Berlin, Guido Hackebeil. 142 pp. 3 marks.

Ceskoslovenské vystehovalectvi Jeho Priciny dusledky a vyhlidky. Prague, Socialni Ustav, 1928. 142 pp.

This publication, which is entitled "Czechoslovak emigration, its causes, consequences and future", contains the reports presented by several Czechoslovak experts on the subject at the National Conference on emigration held at Bratislava, 20-21 September 1928. A summary of these reports in French is given at the end of the volume.

Chajes, Dr. B. *Grundriss der Berufskunde und Berufshygiene.* Berlin, Julius Springer, 1929. viii + 398 pp. 14 marks.

Second edition of a pamphlet published by Professor Chajes earlier in 1929 in which he summarises the lectures delivered by him in 1928 at the Academy of Administration of Berlin on occupations and industrial hygiene. Completely revised and enlarged, this edition takes into account the results of the census of 1925 and gives a good summary of the present state of knowledge of industrial hygiene. One part of the work is devoted to general questions and another to special questions relating to industrial hygiene. In the first part, the author examines in turn social conditions, general principles of industrial hygiene and labour protection; in the part devoted to special questions, Professor Chajes reviews the different occupations. The last chapter is devoted to the choice of an occupation and vocational guidance.

Chambre consultative des associations ouvrières de production. *Compte rendu du X^e congrès national de la coopération ouvrière de production de France, tenu à Paris les 5 et 6 octobre 1928 au Musée social.* Paris, l'Emancipatrice, 1929. 248 pp.

Chiesa, Eugenio. *La situation politique, financière et économique en Italie.* Paris, 1929. 48 pp.

Comité central des allocations familiales. *VIII^e Congrès national des allocations familiales. Lyon, St-Chamond, St-Etienne, Le Puy, Vienne, Vals-les-Bains 14-17 mai 1928. Compte rendu.* Paris. 228 pp.

Confédération générale de la production francaise. Commission générale d'organisation scientifique du travail. *L'organisation rationnelle dans les compagnies d'assurances.* Conférence de M. BURLOT (10 juin 1927). Paris. 38 pp.

Desprez, Jean. *Le délai-congé en législation comparée.* Thèse pour le Doctorat. Paris, Librairie Dalloz, 1929. 585 pp.

Among the problems connected with the termination of the contract of employment one of the most important is that of notice. Since the war new legislative provisions have been passed in a number of countries. Controversies have arisen regarding the principles involved and the application of these provisions, but no general study of the subject has hitherto been attempted. Mr. Desprez has not confined himself to a presentation of the provisions in force affecting different classes of workers in thirty-one countries, but has made a detailed comparative study of the different aspects of the determination of a contract: notice (length and form of notice and stipulation as to notice), obstacles to dismissal, sudden breach, legal proceedings, indemnity, sanctions, etc. The matters dealt with in the different chapters are summarised in synoptic tables for facility of reference. This work deserves the attention of all who follow the evolution of labour legislation from the international standpoint.

Deutschlands Gesundheitsverhältnisse unter dem Einfluss des Weltkrieges. Herausgegeben von Dr. F. BUMM. Wirtschafts- und Sozialgeschichte des Weltkrieges. Deutsche Serie. Carnegie-Stiftung für Internationalen Frieden. Abteilung für Volkswirtschaft und Geschichte. Stuttgart, Berlin, Leipzig, Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt; New Haven, Yale University Press, 1928. I. Halbband. XIX + 365 pp. II. Halbband. 280 pp.

This interesting work includes two studies relating more especially to industrial medicine. The first, by Dr. THIELE, concerns the health of workers in Germany during the war. The second, by Dr. RUBNER, is devoted to nutrition and food supply; it examines, among other problems, that of working capacity and output of workers in relations to physical factors.

Die Verhandlungen des fünfunddreissigsten Evangelisch-Sozialen Kongresses in Dresden am 29.-31. Mai 1928. Göttingen, Verlag von Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht, 1928. 185 pp.

Epstein, Abraham. *The Challenge of the Aged.* Introduction by Jane ADDAMS New York, Macy Masius: The Vanguard Press, 1928. XVIII + 435 pp. $3.

The necessity of making provision for the indigent aged in the United States becomes ever more acute. The advantage of high wages which the American wage earner enjoys is offset by the difficulty of retaining employment after middle age, while the problem of saving against old age is aggravated by the prolongation of the expectation of life. Some hundreds of large firms have instituted pension schemes for those of their workers who remain with the firm for their working life, but the proportion of the wage-earning population effectively secured against old age remains very small. Seven States, however, have adopted laws providing small non-contributory pensions at the age of 70 for persons whose means do not exceed a prescribed limit.

With the object of promoting State pension legislation, whether on the non-contributory or contributory basis, Mr. Epstein has made a comprehensive study of the problem of old-age security and its solutions. Having analysed the causes which contribute to the creation of a class of aged poor and given statistical evidence of the magnitude of that class, he examines the existing provision made by the poor law, and by industrial, public service and trade union pension schemes, which he finds to be inadequate. He discusses the merits and disadvantages of State contributory and non-contributory pension legislation, and supplies some data on the probable cost. He then reviews the progress of the movement for old-age pension legislation in the various States. He concludes with a description of pension systems abroad, giving a brief analysis of each of the laws in operation in some forty countries.

Feather, William. *100 % American.* Adapted and translated by Georges BENOIT-LÉVY. Obtainable from Mr. Benoit-Lévy, Pessicart, Nice; 1928. 110 pp., illustr. 25 frs.

Mr. Benoit-Lévy, the well-known author of works on garden cities, model factories, etc., has brought together in this book the ideas, aphorisms and more vivid narratives of the American writer William Feather. The latter, in his opinion, is the man who best represents the average American, with his progressive activity and his love of home.

Fédération nationale des travailleurs du sous-sol et similaires (mineurs, miniers et ardoisiers). *La législation minière relative aux retraites, caisses de secours, délégués mineurs, durée du travail et salaires. Lois, décrets, conventions internationales, formules et barèmes.* Versailles. VII + 177 pp.

Grünau, Norbert von. *Die finanzielle und wirtschaftliche Entwicklung der Filmindustrie in Deutschland.* Inaugural Dissertation zur Erlangung der staatswissenschaftlichen Doktor-Würde der hohen Rechts- und Staatswissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität zu Münster i. W. Berlin, P. v. Malotty. 8 pp.

Guitton, Georges. *Léon Harmel et l'initiative ouvrière.* Pour les Collaborations professionnelles. Paris, Editions Spes, 1929. 94 pp. 4 fr.

The author describes the social work of Léon Harmel and analyses his methods and theories.

Hampton, E. W. *Early Co-operation in Birmingham and District.* Foreword by E. CURTIS. Birmingham, 1928. 100 pp.

Helpenstein, Dr. Franz. *Die Besteuerung der Genossenschaften.* Erster Teil. 1. *Allgemeine Vorschriften.* II. *Die Körperschaftsteuer.* Die Genossenschaft. Sammlung von Schriften und Vorträgen des Seminars für Genossenschaftswesen an der Universität Köln. Herausgegeben von Dr. Georg FUCHS und Dr. W. VLEUGELS. 4. Heft. Halberstadt, H. Meyer, 1928. 54 pp.

Hexner, Dr. Erwin. *Zaklady kartelového Prava.* Prague, 1929. 157 pp.

The author, who is General Secretary to the Slovak Federation of Manufacturers, gives in this excellent work a summary of the principal features of the law relating to cartels and its administration in Czechoslovakia and other countries.

Heyman, Henri. *Centralisation et rationalisation des entreprises industrielles en Belgique.* Louvain, Editions de la Société d'études morales, sociales et juridiques, 1928. 113 pp. 7 frs.

This brochure contains an address given by the Belgian Minister of Industry and Labour at the fifteenth Walloon Social Week held at Louvain, September 1928. Briefly, but with precision and clearness, the author examines the different forms of industrial centralisation and the principal methods put into use through rationalisation. The examples cited by Mr. Heyman are, for the greater part, taken from Belgian industry, but he has not omitted to make mention of the origin of the movement and its evolution in other countries.

In his conclusions the author shows that centralisation and rationalisation present many problems which can be solved, but which must be carefully considered. He quotes with approval the opinion of the Rev. Father Delaye, which shows much analogy with that of some American manufacturers, to the effect that the adoption of "immoral" technical methods must lead sooner or later to a ruinous situation in which their inherent defects will stand revealed.

Houser, David J. *What the Employer thinks. Executives' Attitudes toward Employees.* Cambridge, Harvard University Press; London, Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press, 1927. VIII + 226 pp.

The Jacob Wertheim Research Fellowship for the Betterment of Industrial Relations was founded in New York in 1923. The above volume is the first published by the Foundation.

Mr. Houser, after having interviewed numerous American leaders of industry, has tried to deal with the manager's attitude towards personnel and organisation

problems and to determine the direct influence of the standpoints adopted upon the morale of their employees. As he states in his preface, it was impossible to avoid the conclusion that the organisation philosophy of the manager was "the focal point for attack upon the problem of industrial unrest". Mr. Houser has taken pains to define clearly the elements of industrial difficulty.

His study is divided into three parts dealing respectively with : "executive authority" (the employer's mind as revealed in interviews) ; "executive function" (the employer's tasks, obligations and responsibilities) ; "executive performance" (stimulation of the employer's sense of responsibility). "The very cornerstone of the entire industrial order", he concludes, "will be found to lie in personal relationships."

Huber, Dr. Max. *Die soziologischen Grundlagen des Völkerrechts.* Mit einer Vorbemerkung von Dr. Herbert KRAUS. Internationalrechtliche Abhandlungen. Zweite Abhandlung. Berlin, Dr. Walter Rothschild, 1928. VII + 101 pp.

In this interesting work, Professor Huber, Judge and former President of the Permanent Court of International Justice, examines the sociological basis of international law and reviews the various factors in its evolution down to 1910. No mention is made of the international institutions and doctrinal movements which are the outcome of important events since that date, but the time elapsed since they were written does not detract in any way from the interest of these pages. As Dr. Kraus observes in his foreword, they will be read to-day with as much profit and enjoyment as they were over twenty years ago. The book is full of legal and philosophical considerations as true as they are suggestive.

Ianouloff, I. *Obchestveno izrajdane i borba s nego.* Sofia, 1928. 54 pp. 30 leva.

—— *La situation économique et sociale en Bulgarie.* Rapport de l'Association bulgare pour la Paix et la Société des Nations. Sofia, 1929. 32 pp.

The author sees in the effective operation and extension of the work of the International Labour Organisation a powerful means of combating social evils such as alcoholism, industrial diseases, unemployment, insanitary housing, suicide and crime.

Kelley, Florence, and Marsh, Marguerite. *A Skeleton in Industry's Closet. Youth's Compensation for Industrial Injuries.* Pamphlet No. 4. New York, National Consumers' League, 1929. 32 pp.

The authors examine the deficiencies of the workmen's compensation laws of the United States with regard to the treatment of injured minors. They advocate the amendment of existing legislation with a view to securing compensation to minors injured while illegally employed, the rates of compensation in such cases being double or treble the normal rates, and based on the probable earning power of the minor as an uninjured adult. They also urge that minors should be excluded from hazardous employments, and that the States should publish statistics enabling a scientific preventive policy to be carried out.

Knibbs, Sir George Handley. *The Shadow of the World's Future or The Earth's Population Possibilities and the Consequences of the present Rate of Increase of the Earth's Inhabitants.* London, Ernest Benn, 1928. 131 pp.

Study on the population problem, by the former Statistician of the Commonwealth of Australia. It is an exposition of the consequences of the limited population-carrying capacity, under various conditions, of our earth, founded upon a survey of the areas of distribution of its present inhabitants, and of their production. The author maintains that the menace of the present rate of growth of those inhabitants is most serious. He deals, among other matters, with the distribution of the population throughout the world, and urges the need for a world migration policy, although he sees great difficulties in the way.

Landssekreteriatet. *Berättelse över Landsorganisationens i Sverige verksamhet 1927.* Stockholm, Arbetarnas Tryckeri, 1928. 255 pp.

Annual report of the Swedish Federation of Trade Unions submitted to the meeting of the representative body in 1928.

Leibbrandt, Georg. *Die Auswanderung aus Schwaben nach Russland 1815-1823. Ein schwäbisches Zeit- und Charakterbild.* Schriften des Deutschen Ausland-Instituts Stuttgart. Reihe A. Kulturhistorische Reihe. Stuttgart, Ausland und Heimat Verlags-Aktiengesellschaft, 1928. 212 pp.

This work examines for the first time the migratory movement from Württemberg to Russia from 1816 to 1823. The movement included several thousand persons, the greater number of whom left their country in 1817. The author considers the economic and social conditions of the country of emigration and briefly reviews possibilities of colonisation in Russia. He discusses the political, economic and religious causes which brought about this migratory movement. His account of the great difficulties in which emigrants found themselves during their journey in Russia and through Russia to Caucasia are extremely instructive. The work presents for the history of emigration a more general interest than its title would seem to indicate.

Logan, Harold A. *The History of Trade-Union Organisation in Canada.* Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1928. xv + 427 pp.

Louis, Paul. *Histoire de la classe ouvrière en France de la Révolution à nos jours. La condition matérielle des travailleurs, les salaires et le coût de la vie.* Paris, Marcel Rivière, 1927. 412 pp. 20 frs.

The author examines the conditions of the working classes in France during the past hundred and thirty-seven years, from the Revolution of 1789 down to 1926. He dwells particularly on the period during which the capitalist system become established and developed and which is marked by the uninterrupted extension of the use of machinery and industrial centralisation. The volume includes a bibliography.

Man, Henri de. *Au delà du marxisme.* Nouvelle édition. Paris, Félix Alcan, 1929. xvi + 406 pp. 40 frs.

Mr. de Man's work, which was analysed in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XVII, No. 1, January 1928, p. 146, has been revised in this new edition. The first translation has been amended by Mr. André Philip, Professor in the University of Lyons. Moreover, the author has somewhat shortened the main body of the book and added, in the form of an appendix, a translation of the so-called "theses of de Heppenhaim", maintained by him at the Congress of the German-speaking Neo-Fabian Socialists held in May 1928. The theses in question summarise the principal ideas contained in Mr. de Man's work and assist the reader in making an orderly recapitalation.

McKenna, The Rt. Hon. Reginald. *Post-War Banking Policy.* A Series of Addresses. London, William Heinemann, 1928. 149 pp.

This is a collection of the addresses delivered by Mr. McKenna, principally as Chairman of the Midland Bank, from 1920 to 1928. Practically every one of these addresses deals with the relations between monetary policy and unemployment; they constitute a sustained plea by a recognised banking authority for a less rigid credit policy on the part of the Bank of England.

Müller, Dr. Friedrich v. *Krankenkost und Krankenhauskost.* Veröffentlichungen des Fünften Wohlfahrtsverbandes, Nr. 4. Berlin. 24 pp.

Neuenhofer, Dr. Adolf. *Das Handwerk in der modernen Wirtschaft.* M. Gladbach, Volksvereins-Verlag. 47 pp.

The author makes use of the data supplied by the last industrial census of Germany (1925) to show the importance of the part played by handicrafts in modern economy. Ten million persons in Germany earn a living as handicraftsmen. About half this number live in the country. The training of skilled workers

must be counted as among the more important work accomplished ; in Germany 693,000 apprentices at a time are being trained as handicraftsmen.

The author reviews German legislation relating to handicrafts and proposed laws. In addition to measures taken by the State, he indicates those taken by handicraftsmen themselves to improve their position.

Nyström, Bertil. *Hur arbetet betalas. En översikt över löneförhallandena inom det svenska näringslivet.* Stockholm, Kooperativa förbundets bokförlag, 1929. 114 pp.

This interesting survey of wage conditions in Sweden, by the head of the Statistical Research Department of the Swedish Social Board, is based on a series of lectures delivered at the Stockholm wireless station during the autumn of 1928. The last chapter, on the wage level in Sweden and abroad, contains a criticism of the comparative real wage statistics compiled by the International Labour Office. The book also contains a full list of works on wage statistics published in Swedish, for the guidance of students of the subject.

Otchet na Saiuza na Balgarskite Indoustrialtsi Prez 1928. Sofia, 1929. 123 pp.

Report of the Union of Bulgarian Manufacturers for 1928.

Parisius, Ludolf, and Crüger, Dr. Hans. *Das Reichsgesetz betreffend die Erwerbs- und Wirtschaftsgenossenschaften.* Textausgabe mit Anmerkungen und Sachregister. Neunzehnte, neu bearbeitete Auflage (81. bis 86. Tausend) von Dr. Hans Crüger, Dr. Adolf Crecelius und Fritz Citron. Guttentagsche Sammlung Deutscher Reichsgesetze. Nr. 29. Berlin and Leipzig, Walter de Gruyter, 1928. 299 pp.

Pemmers, Tony. *Le contrat de travail des employés dans le Grand-Duché de Luxembourg.* Paris, Librairie Dalloz, 1928. 222 pp. 22 frs.

This work is not only a well-informed commentary on the Luxemburg Act of 31 October 1919 relating to the hiring of services of salaried employees in private undertakings ; the author also explains the legal position of the salaried employee as defined in the general body of legislation on the contract of employment, giving a large number of references to national and foreign legal decisions on the point. The work is therefore a regular treatise, which may serve as a guide to the law on the subject, not only in Luxemburg, but also in other countries. The interest of a work of this nature is rendered all the greater by the fact that in a large number of countries the provisions relating to salaried employees are scattered throughout the legislation dealing with the general principles of the contract of employment, laws affecting both workers and salaried employees, and Acts relating specially to salaried employees. By condensing the regulations concerning salaried employees in a clear and practical handbook the author has accomplished a piece of work which is the more useful since it appears to be the first attempt of its kind.

Picard, Roger. *Le mouvement syndical durant la guerre.* La guerre et le travail. Histoire économique et sociale de la guerre mondiale. Série française. Publications de la Dotation Carnegie pour la paix internationale. Paris, Les Presses Universitaires ; New Haven, Yale University Press. 306 pp. 30 frs.

Mr. Picard's work is one in the series of studies devoted to labour conditions during the war, which form part of the Economic and Social History of the World War published by the Carnegie Foundation for International Peace.

After a historical exposition of the development of trade unions in France, trade union tendencies, and the evolution of legislation concerning trade unionism, the author describes the trade union movement in France in relation to public authorities and employers, the new attitude of the General Federation of Labour towards a number of problems affecting the workers, and trade union efforts for economic reconstruction in the national and the international spheres.

The author has not confined his study to a record of events connected with trade union activity during the war ; he devotes special care to an analysis of the changes in trade union methods and to the doctrinal differences which are at the root of the present split.

As Mr. Shotwell points out in the preface, the different aspects of the trade union movement in France are examined in this volume in the light of a large number of documents and in an entirely objective spirit.

Potthoff, Dr. Heinz. *Arbeitsrecht. Das Ringen um Werdendes Recht.* Lebendige Wissenschaft. Strömungen und Probleme der Gegenwart. Herausgeber Dr. Fritz Edinger. Band V. Berlin, Mauritius-Verlag, 1928. 152 pp.

The author, one of the best known promoters of labour law as distinct from general civil law in Germany, tries, in an attractive manner, to bring the problems of labour law to the understanding of a wider public. The conception of certain problems held by him is not a general one, and for this reason the book makes interesting and stimulating reading.

Purcell, A. A., and Hallsworth, J. *Report on Labour Conditions in India.* London, Trades Union Congress General Council, 1928. 66 pp. 1s.

The report is the result of the experiences and investigations of the two delegates sent to India by the British Trades Union Congress in 1927. After a brief general statement on illiteracy and education, housing and sanitation, wages and fines, welfare work and trade unionism, the report describes hours of work and wage rates in several organised industries, shows India's need of organised assistance, and submits to the British Trade Union movement a plea for help in meeting that need. The report includes a list of trade unions in India and a number of photographs.

Read, Margaret. *From Field to Factory. An introductory study of the Indian peasant turned into factory hand.* London, Student Christian Movement, 1927. 78 pp.

The brochure roughly describes the transition from the agricultural to the industrial life in India, and indicates some of the problems involved and the duty of Christianity towards their solution.

Reichsbund der Beamten und Angestellten in den öffentlichen Betrieben und Verwaltungen. *Protokoll vom ersten Reichsvertretertag des Reichsbundes der Beamten und Angestellten in den öffentlichen Betrieben und Verwaltungen 5.-6. Oktober 1928 im Hinderburgbau Stuttgart.* 116 pp.

Richter, Dr. Lutz. *Grundverhältnisse des Arbeitsrechts. Einführende Darstellung des gesamten Arbeitsrechts.* Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1928. VI + 153 pp. 4.60 marks.

The book is intended as an introduction to German labour law. It is based on lectures given by the author. He intentionally refrains from developing new theories of law and from critical discussion. The book, however, is not planned on the lines adopted in the majority of handbooks on the subject. The whole field of labour law is dealt with under four main headings devoted respectively to : the nature of labour law, modern means of creating it, its fundamental relations, and international labour law.

Robertson, B., and Samuel, H. *Pension and Superannuation Funds. Their Formation and Administration explained.* Foreword by Sir Joseph Burn, K.B.E., F.I.A. London, Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, 1928. X + 134 pp.

The reader will find in this handbook not only a simple exposition of the general principles of actuarial science as they apply to industrial pension schemes but also information concerning the status of pension funds before the law. It is indeed a guide to be read by any management which contemplates the establishment of a pension scheme.

Sach, Vladimir. *Vedecké Rizeni Prace y Druzstevnictvi.* Prague, Druzstevni Knihovna, 1928. 60 pp.

A plea for the introduction in co-operative undertakings of the methods of scientific management applied in capitalist undertakings.

Schaeffer, Henri F. *Hygiène de la navigation maritime.* Manuel conforme aux programmes officiels des examens de la marine marchande et des pêches, suivi

d'une annexe à l'usage des docteurs en médecine. Paris, Société d'éditions géographiques, maritimes et coloniales, 1927. II + 224 pp.

Schlossmann, Dr., and Kiesselbach, Luise. (a) *Die Alten, ein Kapitel aus der Geschichte des Undanks.* By Dr. SCHLOSSMANN. (b) *Altersnot und Altersfürsorge.* By Luise KIESSELBACH. Veröffentlichungen des Fünften Wohlfahrtsverbandes, Nr. 5. Berlin. 32 pp.

Schrader, Karl, and Furtwängler, Franz, Josef. *Das werktätige Indien : Sein Werden und sein Kampf.* Auf Grund der Indien-reise der deutschen Textilarbeiter-Delegation. Verfasst im Auftrage des Deutschen Textilarbeiter-Verbandes. Berlin, Deutscher Textilarbeiter-Verband, 1928. 442 pp.

From 1 November 1926 to 16 March 1927 a delegation of the International Federation of Textile Workers travalled in India for the main purpose of studying the conditions of labour and production in the textile industry in that country. The delegation consisted of Mr. Tom Shaw, M.P., Secretary of the Federation, and Miss Shaw, Messrs. Brothers and Hindle, representing the British textile workers, and Messrs. Schrader and Furtwängler, representing the German textile workers. The present volume is a report by the German members of the delegation.

An attractive volume, well printed, and illustrated with over thirty full-page photographs, it is by no means confined to a study of the textile industry in India, but covers the whole field of industrial production and organisation. In Part I the authors endeavour to give in some 140 pages a general account of the land and people, of the history of India, of the organisation of the State, the administration, and the finances, of the organisation of Indian industry, and of the political movement. Part II is the main part of the report ; it deals with the development of trade union organisations in India, and includes an appreciation of the living and working conditions of the workers and of Indian labour legislation, a description of the organisation and activity of existing trade unions, and a summary of the difficulties and future possibilities of the Indian labour movement.

From this short account of its contents, it will be seen that the book contains a large amount of useful material and is the product of great industry on the part of the authors. The value of the book as a contribution to the study of the situation in India, especially for international readers, is, however, limited by the spirit in which the authors have presented their researches. On this point, they say themselves (page 13) :

" As regards the manner in which we have reported the knowledge we have acquired and the observations we have made, we can lay claim to conscientious accuracy. We do not, however, pretend to be impartial inthe sense of a dispassionate presentation of the facts without an expression of our own opinion and judgment upon them ; on the contrary, we reject such a claim. We should be bad representatives of the trade union proletariat were we to speak with the emasculated neutrality of registrars, instead of in strong language, of the misery of those millions who are being used by the double power of industrial capital and imperialist alien rule for the purpose of slave competition against the workers of Europe. "

In spite of the contempt of the authors for the objective treatment of their subject, they have contented themselves in parts of the book with a clear description of the facts as they have understood them, and of the results of their own observation. For the sake of these parts alone the book may be recommended to all who are interested in India, its peoples and problems.

Secrétariat des paysans suisses. *Trente et unième rapport annuel du Comité directeur de l'Union suisse des paysans et du Secrétariat des paysans suisses, 1928.* Brugg, 1929. 144 pp.

Sevelinges, Jean-Baptiste de. *Les allocations familiales dans l'agriculture.* Paris, Librarie du Recueil Sirey, 1928. 135 pp.

After expounding the ideas of the promoters of family allowances in France and examining the causes of the success of these allowances in industry and their partial failure in agriculture, the author shows that family allowances would be particularly useful in agriculture, where, however, they have made mediocre and slow progress. He then considers the attempts made in favour of

the grant of family allowances to agricultural workers, describes the working of existing agricultural equalisation funds, and gives their membership, the number of families benefiting, and the total of the allowances paid. Finally, he outlines a scheme to make the payment of family allowances general in agriculture. A bibliography is included.

Silverman, S. A. *The Economics of Social Problems. An Introduction to Social Economics.* Second Edition. London, W. B. Clive, 1928. xi + 399 pp.

Second edition of a book originally written in 1925. The author has described the economics of the more urgent social problems in broad outline, and given a fairly representative bibliography for readers who desire to pursue their study in the more detailed and specialised works. In the present edition many sections have been re-written, and a good deal of new matter has been introduced.

Sinzheimer, Dr. Hugo. *Zur Frage des Betriebsrisikos nach der arbeitsgerichtlichen Rechtsprechung.* Schriften der Vela, Vereinigung der leitenden Angestellten. Berlin, 1929. 46 pp.

Sommerfeld, T. *Atlas der gewerblichen Gesundheitspflege.* Band III. *Gesundheitspflege in der chemischen industrie,* mit 101 Abbildungen und 4 Tafeln. Berlin, Preussische Verlagsanstalt, 1928. 144 pp.

The success of the first two volumes of this work (analysed respectively in the January and November 1927 numbers of the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 1, p. 171, and Vol. XVI, No. 5, p. 752) led the author to publish the above third volume, which is devoted to hygiene in the chemical industry. The book is in two parts ; the first concerns the preparation of inorganic chemical products ; the second deals with the preparation of organic chemical products. As in the preceding volumes, Mr. Sommerfeld has included a large number of illustrations.

Spicer, Robert S. *British Engineering Wages.* London, Edward Arnold and Co., 1928. 159 pp.

This book is a comprehensive study, evidently written by an authority with "inside knowledge" of the wage problems of the British engineering industry. The first part is devoted to a concise account of past and present engineering wages in Great Britain and in competitive countries, their fluctuations, the relationship of rates to earnings and the manner in which they have been regulated. The extent to which " earnings " exceed " rates " is shown to be in the neighbourhood of 22 per cent. In the second part, the chief problems with which the industry is confronted, such as " capacity to pay " and " foreign competition ", are analysed. The author concludes that " neither the economic position, nor the prospects of the industry justify an increase of wages for the present volume of production at present prices ", though certain redistributions of the existing wage bill are suggested which will give greater economic satisfaction. In the third and final part, suggestions are made as to the general lines upon which the solution of the different problems might be approached, such as family allowances, the suspension of restrictive trade-union regulations and an extension of systems of payment by results. A tentative scheme for the scientific regulation of engineering wages on the basis of an index of capacity to pay is put forward. The index consists of a combination of two factors : the volume of machinery exported and the value per ton of such exports. The book is a valuable contribution to the problem of wage regulation and is indispensable to all students of the subject.

Spühler, Dr. Willy. *La structure internationale de l'industrie de l'alimentation et l'attitude de ses ouvriers.* Discours tenu au IV^e^ Congrès de l'U. I. A., à Vienne, 2-4 juillet 1928. Zurich. 32 pp.

This pamphlet is also published in German and in Swedish.

Stroh, Louis. *L'étranger et les assurances sociales.* Reprinted from the *Répertoire de Droit international* (V. *Assurances sociales*). Paris, Recueil Sirey, 1929. 31 pp. 6 fr.

Mr. Stroh deals with the regulations regarding the treatment of foreigners

embodied in the social insurance systems of the majority of European countries. After outlining the problem, he reviews for each country the legislative provisions and provisions of reciprocity treaties relating to the subject. Mr. Stroh emphasises the regrettable consequences of disputes as to jurisdiction, and the necessity of international agreements strictly defining by a single and clear rule the scope of the insurance systems.

Tillyard, Frank. *Industrial Law.* Second Edition. London, A. and C. Black, 1928. xxiii + 562 pp.

The first edition of this book was published in 1916. A considerable amount of legislation has been enacted in England since that date, and certain chapters in the present edition have therefore been either entirely rewritten or substantially revised. The chapters on unemployment insurance and trade unions, in particular, have been rewritten in such a way as to eliminate, as far as possible, the difficulties created by the form of the relative Acts. Without going into too much detail, the book gives a lucid exposition of English industrial law down to 1927. Legal principles and the more important parts of statutes are dealt with in the text, while Statutory Rules and Orders are included in the appendices. The book includes an analytical table of contents of both text and appendices, and a reference table of statutes arranged chronologically.

Twigg, H. J. *The Economic Advance of British Co-operation, 1913 to 1926.* Manchester, The Co-operative Union, 1928. 96 pp. 2s.

This booklet brings up to 1926 and supplements the information contained in the report of the General Co-operative Survey Committee, which was published nine years ago and presented for the first time a comprehensive survey of the development, activities and position of the co-operative movement in Great Britain. It not only supplies in readily accessible form a great amount of information relating to membership, capital, trade, employment, etc., but brings to light practical lessons taught by the last 14 years of co-operative experience, and provides the possibility of comparing from various points of view the position of the British co-operative movement in post-war and pre-war years.

Urban, Georg. *Die hauptsächlichsten Unfallgefahren und ihre Verhütung in Bäckereien, Brotfabriken, Konditoreien und verwandten Betrieben.* Berlin. 48 pp. illustr.

—— *Die hauptsächlichsten Unfallgefahren und ihre Verhütung in Schokoladen-, Marzipan- und Zuckerwaren-Fabriken.* Berlin. 72 pp. illustr.

Ustredni jednota hospodarskych drustev v Praze. *Tricet let ceské semedelské druzstevni práce.* Prague. 624 + 48 pp. illustr.

This well illustrated volume, which is provided with numerous diagrams and statistics, describes agriculture in Czechoslovakia, the rural population, the organisation of rural economy and the agricultural co-operative movement. An index, summaries, and headings to the chapters are given in French, English and German. A translation in French of the tables, classifications, etc., contained in the text itself is also provided.

Valeur, Robert, and Lambert, Edouard. (1) *L'enseignement du droit en France et aux Etats-Unis.* By Robert Valeur. (2) *L'enseignement du droit comme science sociale et comme science internationale.* By E. Lambert. Bibliothèque de l'Institut de Droit comparé de Lyon. Etudes et Documents. Tome 23. Paris, 1928. cxxii + 393 pp. 65 frs.

Mr. Valeur's study is in two parts, in which he analyses in turn the French conception of the teaching of law considered as a social science and the American conception of the law school. He describes the efforts to place education for the law in the United States, so neglected a century ago, on the same level as other university studies, and emphasises the importance of the recent reform attempted at Columbia University with the object of promoting the study of law in relation to current economic and social problems, and not only as a preparation for the Bar. Despite the strict limits set to the plan of his study, the

author, in the course of his searching analysis—which is based on a full and methodical selection of documents and provided with abundant references—throws a curious light on the psychology of the American people.

Mr. Valeur's work is preceded by a substantial introductory study by Professor Lambert, Director of the Lyons Institute of Comparative Law, in which he shows the inevitable evolution in legal education towards the study of law in its social and international aspects. He reviews the progress made and the tendencies observable in this direction in the different countries, and lays particular emphasis on the necessity of developing the study of the science of comparative law in the university law course. This development, he considers, calls for the creation of an "International University or Faculty of Law and Social Sciences".

Valk, Dr. Willem. *The Principles of Wages.* London. P. S. King and Son, 1928. XII + 139 pp.

This study is one of three which received honourable mention in the prize competition for the best original thesis on the subject of the theory of wages arranged in 1926 by Messrs. Hart, Schaffner and Marx, of Chicago. Only the demand side of the question is considered by Dr. Valk; all problems relating to the supply of labour are excluded. Dr. Valk considers that, from this standpoint, there is no such thing as a separate theory of wages; wages are determined by the same conditions as those which determine the whole system of prices. Also "Wages being one of the prices paid for the agents of production, it is obvious that the theory of wages cannot be separated from the prices paid for the other agents of production."

The study gives a critical survey of the chief modern theories of functional distribution (i.e. the distribution of the total income of society into wages, interest and profits). The conclusion is reached that a full comprehension of the problem of distribution is possible only through a synthesis of the marginal production theory of value and the theory of prices as elaborated by Professors Walras and Cassel, of the Mathematical School. From the practical point of view the conclusion is reached that to secure an increase in wages the first thing necessary is to increase total production so that more is available for distribution. Labour's share will be high if capital is plentiful and labour scarce. An improvement in the quality and efficiency of labour through a good system of education is also an important factor tending towards an increase in the level of wages.

Vandervelde, Emile. *Le pays d'Israël. Un marxiste en Palestine.* Followed by *Les oeuvres d'assistance en Palestine juive.* By Dr. Jeanne-Emile VANDERVELDE. Judaïsme. Etudes publiées sous la direction de P.-L. COUCHOUD. Paris, Rieder, 1929.

Mr. Vandervelde, former Belgian Minister, found in Palestine confirmation of the thesis that socialism can be attained only after a capitalist phase. There are, he says, some communistic colonies in Palestine, but beneath the surface an active enterprising capitalism is at work. This capitalism supports industrial development and the purchase and farming of land. It has, however, in this country where no middle class exists, come into direct collision with the workers' and colonists' unions, which are alert to defend not only their wage rates, but also their social creed. It is in the examination of this problem that the chief interest of Mr. Vandervelde's book lies. His study is a sincere and lively testimony to the work which is being carried on in Palestine.

Verband des Bergbauindustriearbeiter Deutschlands. *Die soziale Bedeutung weltwirtschaftlicher Verflechtungen.* Von Dr. Rudolf WISSELL. *Internationale Kohlenbewirtschaftung.* Von Dr. Georg BERGER. Zwei Vorträge gehalten auf der 26. Generalversammlung des Verbandes der Bergarbeiter Deutschlands am 13. Juli 1928 im Herrenkrug zu Magdeburg.

Vereinigung der leitenden Angestellten. *Die Gehaltsfrage der leitenden Angestellten.* Berlin. 16 pp.

Verunac, Dr. Vaclav. *Laboretismus. Hnuti technickomravniho pokroku hospodarského.* Prague, "Parlamentu", 1928. 15 pp.

Dr. Verunac, former General-Secretary to the International Committee for Scientific Management, sets forth in this brochure the main ideas at the root of the movement he seeks to foster among the younger generation of technicians and managers. He considers that a better world economic organisation should be based not only on technical improvement but also on ethical considerations.

Vogler, Armand. *Die tatsächliche Arbeitszeit in der schweizerischen Industrie.* Dissertation der rechts- und staatwissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Zürich. Brugg, Buchdruckerei Effingerhof, 1929. 124 pp.

In the first part of the book the author examines legislative measures passed in Switzerland from 1820 to 1920 for the protection of workers against excessively long hours. In the second he considers working hours in Switzerland since 1920. He reaches the conclusion that the present regulations relating to hours meet industrial requirements.

Winkler, Wilhelm. *Statistisches Handbuch des gesamten Deutschtums.* Herausgegeben im Auftrage der Stiftung für deutsche Volks- und Kulturbodenforschung in Leipzig in Verbindung mit der Deutschen Statistischen Gesellschaft. Berlin, Verlag Deutsche Rundschau, 1927. III + 704 pp.

Zarins, A. *Rokas Gramata Pateretaju Kooperacijas Darbiniekiem.* Riga, Latvijas Pateretaju Biedribu Savieniba. 1929. 278 pp.

Manual designed for the use of employees of distributive co-operative societies.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED BY THE OFFICE

Chavaroche, J. *L'économie et la lutte politique en France.* Paris, Bureau d'éditions. 126 pp. 4 frs.

Classe contre classe. La question française au IX^e Exécutif et au VI^e Congrès de l'I. C. Paris, Bureau d'Editions, 1929. 260 pp. 10 frs.

Deutscher Eigenheim Baugesellschaft. *Organisation und Bautätigkeit.* Düsseldorf, Rhenania-Verlag, 1928. 28 pp. illustr.

Lénine, V. I. *Œuvres complètes.* Tome VII. *Les débuts de la première révolution russe (1904-1905).* Traduction rédigée par Victor SERGE, d'après la deuxième édition russe (revue et complétée) de l'Institut Lénine de Moscou. Paris, Editions Sociales Internationales, 1928. 530 pp.

Les étapes de l'Internationale communiste. Dixième anniversaire de la Fondation de la III^e Internationale. Paris, Bureau d'éditions. 38 pp. 1 fr.

Schätzel, Dr. Walter. *Die elsass-lothringische Staatsangehörigkeitsregelung und das Völkerrecht. Eine rechtsvergleichende Studie der Probleme der Staatsangehörigkeitsregelung bei Gebietsveränderungen.* Aus dem Institut für Internationales Recht an der Universität Kiel. Erste Reihe. Vorträge und Einzelschriften. Heft 9. Berlin, 1929. 216 pp.

Streit, Dr. G. *Der Lausanner Vertrag und der griechisch-türkische Bevölkerungsaustausch.* Aus dem Institut für Internationales Recht an der Universität Kiel. Erste Reihe. Vorträge und Einzelschriften. Heft 10. Berlin, 1929. 70 pp.

Vaillant-Couturier, P. *Trois conscrits. Le monstre. Asie.* Le théâtre prolétarien, No. 4. Paris, Bureau d'Editions, 1929. 45 pp. 1.50 fr.

Wakinshaw, W. H., and Thompson, H. J. D. *The Golden Crucifixion of John Bull.* The Economic Freedom League. Newcastle-on-Tyne. 96 pp. 6d.

ERRATA

1929, Vol. XIX

No. 1, January; " Migration Problems and the Havana Conference of 1928. "

Page 9, footnote, line 3 from end of page, for " some 300 countries " read " some *200* countries ".

Ditto : " Seasonal Unemployment in the Building Industry in Certain European Countries. "

Page 54. The reference to the footnote should be inserted at the end of the first sentence of section 14 (after the word " figure ").

Page 58, line 3 of footnote, for " a maximum value $\frac{n}{2}$ " read " a maximum value $\sqrt{\frac{n}{2}}$ ".

No. 3, January : " General Principles of an International Convention on the Conditions and Contracts of Employment of Foreign Workers. "

Page 322, line 11 from end of page, for " Permanent Emigration Committee " read " Permanent *Migration* Committee ".

No. 5, May : " Workers' Agricultural Programmes in Austria, England and Germany. "

Page 667, lines 7 and 8 of the introductory note in italics : instead of " now Germany). " read : *now formally adopted in three European countries (Austria, England, Germany).*

Ditto : " Recent Wage Changes in Various Countries : Canada."

Page 715, table III *(a)* (nominal monthly wages in summer), 1923, Canada (average), females : for " 32 " read *39.*

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